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HUNT'S MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

NOVEMBER, 1846.

Art. I.—NAVIGATION AND NAVAL ARCHITECTURE.

A HISTORY of navigation and naval architecture was commenced more than a year since, and the twelfth number had been published in the Nautical Magazine, on the first of last May, when that valuable periodical work was suspended. It was the object of the author to present a condensed account of the maritime enterprise of all nations, from the earliest ages to the present time.

The preceding numbers included the history of the rise and development of the commercial and naval marines of Egypt, Tyre, Carthage, Greece, Rome, and other ancient empires, until their extinction, and of the modern nations of Venice, Genoa, Spain, Portugal, Holland, England, France, Denmark, Sweden, Turkey, and their numerous colonial establishments in the East and West Indies, North and South America, and on the coasts of Africa and Asia, to the memorable engagement between the fleets of Admiral Keppel and Count D'Orvilliers, in 1778.

After the lapse of several months, the subject has been resumed, and will be continued, in four numbers, to the ratification of the treaty of peace between the United States and Great Britain, in 1783; and it is possible it may be extended to the close of the present year, as was originally intended. But if the history of navigation cannot be immediately prosecuted through the important period which has elapsed since the establishment of our national independence, that of naval architecture will certainly be concluded in two additional numbers.

So vastly have the commercial and naval fleets of Europe and of this continent been augmented within the last sixty years, and so far have the bounds of nautical adventure been extended, in consequence of the immensely increased products of agricultural, manufacturing and mechanical industry, that it is desirable the respective proportions of navigation which

the numerous maritime nations have employed, and the credit due to each, for their enterprise and skill as merchants and mariners, as well as the brilliant achievements of their squadrons in war, should be more amply disclosed than can be immediately accomplished; and, therefore, it may be found indispensably necessary to defer that portion of the history to a period when the requisite time for its completion can be more certainly commanded.

NEARCHUS.

HISTORICAL SKETCH OF NAVIGATION AND NAVAL ARCHITECTURE.

NUMBER I.—NEW SERIES.

“A rising nation, spread over a wide and fruitful land; traversing all the seas with the rich productions of their country; engaged in commerce with nations who feel power and forget right; advancing rapidly to destinies beyond the reach of mortal eye.”—JEFFERSON.

Spain having concluded, in June, 1779, to take a decided part with France and America against Great Britain, a joint naval expedition was determined upon by the courts of the two former; and Count D'Orvilliers sailed from Brest, with a large fleet, early in June, for the purpose of forming a junction with that of Spain, which was accomplished on the twenty-fourth. Their united forces, amounting to sixty-six ships of the line, steered for England early in August. Large bodies of troops had been previously stationed on the coasts of Normandy and Brittany; and the ports in the Channel and Bay of Biscay were thronged with vessels, for the apparent purpose of invading England or Ireland.

D'Orvilliers passed Sir Charles Hardy, who was cruising in the Bay of Biscay, with nearly forty ships of the line, without their having the least knowledge of each other. Sir Charles had sailed from Spithead on the sixteenth of June—the day on which the Spanish manifesto was presented to the British court. The French fleet appeared off Plymouth on the evening of the sixteenth of August; and if an attempt had then been made to take that important naval arsenal, it must have been successful; for it was in an utterly defenceless condition. An easterly storm having commenced on the eighteenth, which continued until the twenty-second, the fleet was obliged to pass lower down the Channel, and, instead of returning, cruised off the Land's End, the Scilly Isles, and the chops of the Channel, until the end of the month, for the purpose of intercepting the fleet of Sir Charles Hardy on its return; but he was enabled to gain the entrance of the Channel on the thirty-first, in sight of the combined fleets, which pursued him as far as Plymouth; but, in consequence of the great sickness which prevailed in the French and Spanish ships, as well as their impaired condition, and the apprehension of a gale from the near approach of the equinox, Count D'Orvilliers deemed it necessary to abandon the British coast and repair to Brest, early in September. Several of the public and private armed ships of the United Colonies achieved splendid victories during the year 1779. Captain John Hasten Williams had distinguished himself as a naval officer in the service of the colony of Massachusetts, while commander of the *Republic*, of twelve guns, by the capture of a large armed merchant ship, richly laden, which he carried into Boston; and having been appointed commander of the *Hozand*, of fourteen guns, he captured, in February, 1779, the brig *Active*, of eighteen guns, after a vigorous and close action of thirty minutes. The following May, he sailed in the ship *Protection*, of twenty guns, and, in June, engaged the

Admiral Duff, a letter of marque, of equal force. The action was continued, at close quarters, for more than an hour, when the British ship was perceived to be on fire. Captain Williams immediately hauled off, but had scarcely disengaged his vessel before the Admiral Duff blew up; but, by great exertions, he succeeded in saving fifty-five of her crew. On his return, with a crew greatly reduced in numbers, he sustained a running fight with the frigate *Thames*, of thirty-two guns; and was enabled to injure the enemy so much that he finally sheered off.

In June, 1779, a squadron under the command of Captain Whipple, consisting of the *Providence*, of thirty-two guns, the *Queen of France*, of twenty-eight, and the *Ranger*, of eighteen, captured eleven vessels out of a commercial fleet of one hundred and fifty sail, under the convoy of a ship of the line, and several frigates and sloops of war; eight of which arrived in Boston, the value of whose cargoes amounted to over a million of dollars.

Captain John Paul Jones sailed from the roads of Groaix, on the western coast of France, in August, with a squadron consisting of the *Bonne Homme Richard*, of forty guns, the *Alliance*, of thirty-six, the *Pallas*, of thirty-two, the *Cerf*, of eighteen, and the *Vengeance*, of twelve, for the purpose of intercepting the Baltic fleets. When off Flamborough Head, on the twenty-third of September, he discovered the northern commercial fleet, under convoy of the *Serapis*, of forty-four guns, and the *Countess of Scarborough*, of thirty-two. The merchant ships took refuge under Scarborough Castle. The frigates stood out to sea and prepared for action. It was night before Jones came up with them, when they tacked and stood towards the shore. He immediately changed his course with the intention of cutting them off. As the *Pallas*, at the same time, hauled her wind and stood out to sea, and the *Alliance* lay to, at a considerable distance, the *Bonne Homme Richard* was left alone to contend with the two British ships. The action commenced about seven o'clock, within pistol shot. Several of the guns in the *Bonne Homme Richard* having been burst, Jones determined to grapple with the *Serapis*, and thus render her superiority less efficient, and prevent the *Countess of Scarborough* from firing. With great difficulty, this object was, at last, so fully accomplished that the muzzles of the guns touched each other. In this situation they were engaged for nearly three hours, and all the guns of the *Bonne Homme Richard* but four, were silenced. Captain Pearson, the commander of the *Serapis*, then attempted to board, but was repulsed; and soon after, not being able to bring a single gun to bear, he struck. Captain Jones immediately took possession of the ship, and removed his crew on board; and shortly after, his own ship sunk.

The *Pallas*, commanded by Captain Cotineau, engaged the *Countess of Scarborough*, while the battle was raging between the *Bonne Homme Richard* and the *Serapis*, and captured her after an action of two hours.

On the arrival of Captain Jones in Paris, a sword was presented to him by the king of France, who also conferred upon him the cross of the order of military merit; and, by a resolution of the 27th of February, 1781, Congress declared that they entertained "a high sense of the distinguished bravery and military conduct of John Paul Jones, Esq., Captain in the navy of the United States, and particularly in his victory over the British ship of war *Serapis*, which was attended with circumstances so brilliant as to excite general applause and admiration."

Count D'Estaing, who sailed from Boston the third of November, 1778,

arrived at St. Lucia in the afternoon of the fourteenth of December, with a fleet of twelve ships of the line, besides a number of frigates and transports which had joined him in the West Indies, with a land force of about nine thousand men. A descent had been made upon that island, the preceding day, by a squadron under Admiral Barrington, of five ships of the line and three frigates, and a military force commanded by General Meadows. The British ships were arranged across Careening Bay, between two forts, in such a manner as to effectually guard the entrance. In the afternoon of the fifteenth, the Count made an attack upon the British squadron; but after sustaining a heavy cannonade from the boats and ships, until dark, he retired, with a loss of a great number of men. The next night he landed his troops in Choc Bay, between Gross-Islet and Careening Bay. On the eighteenth, he advanced, in three columns, upon the British lines, which extended across the isthmus; but, after three gallant assaults, he was compelled to retreat, with the loss of four hundred men killed, and eleven hundred wounded. The troops were re-embarked on the twenty-third, and he left the island the next day.

Count D'Estaing took the island of St. Vincent on the eighteenth of June; and his force having been augmented, by the arrival of a squadron under De la Motte Piquet, to twenty-five ships of the line, twelve frigates, and ten thousand troops, under Count Dillon, he sailed for Grenada, which was taken on the third of July. In the mean time, Admiral Byron, who had convoyed the West India commercial fleet through the most exposed portion of its route, returned to St. Lucia, where he received intelligence of the loss of St. Vincent, and immediately determined to proceed to that island with a land force, under Governor Grant, for the purpose of recovering it; but having received information, on his passage, of the attack on Grenada, he changed his destination, and steered for that island, although his armament consisted of only twenty-one ships of the line, and one frigate. He arrived within sight of the French fleet on the morning of the sixth of July; and Count D'Estaing, having received intelligence of his approach, was getting under way. An action commenced at eight o'clock, and ceased at twelve; but was again renewed at two, and continued, for a great portion of the time, until evening, without anything essential having been effected on either side.

Three of the English ships were disabled, and many of the others sustained considerable damage in their masts and rigging; and the French had a great number of men killed and wounded. In the morning the Count returned to Grenada, and Admiral Byron proceeded to Antigua.

Count D'Estaing having repaired and garrisoned the forts in Grenada, repaired to St. Francois, where he received despatches from the governor of South Carolina, General Lincoln, and the French consul at Charleston, requesting his co-operation in a proposed attack upon Savannah; and, as he had been directed by his sovereign to act in concert with the American forces whenever an occasion occurred, he despatched two ships of the line and three frigates to Charleston, to announce his determination to proceed to the coast of Georgia as soon as the requisite arrangements for that purpose could be made.

On the reception of that cheering intelligence, General Lincoln marched with all expedition for Savannah, with the troops under his command; and orders were given for the militia of North Carolina and Georgia to immediately rendezvous near that city.

Count D'Estaing arrived, with twenty ships of the line, two of fifty guns, and eleven frigates, on the first of September; but, as the British had sunk a number of ships in the channel, and extended a boom across it, to prevent the French frigates from entering the harbor, and as the large ships could not approach near the shore, the troops were not landed until the twelfth, and Savannah was not invested until the twenty-third. The siege was vigorously prosecuted until the ninth of October, when it was decided to attempt to carry the enemy's work by an assault. Two feints were first made, by a portion of the militia, and, about day-break, an attack was commenced on the Spring-hill battery, with three thousand five hundred French troops, six hundred continentals, and three hundred and fifty of the Charleston militia, headed by Count D'Estaing and General Lincoln. They advanced up to the lines with great firmness, and two standards were planted on the redoubts. At the same moment, Count Pulaski, with two hundred cavalry, was rushing forward towards the town, between the batteries, with the intention of charging in the rear, when he received a mortal wound. A general retreat then ensued of the assailants, after they had withstood the enemy's fire for nearly an hour. Count D'Estaing received two wounds, and eight hundred and seventy-eight men were killed or wounded.

Count D'Estaing re-embarked his troops in about ten days; but scarcely had that been accomplished, when a violent gale dispersed the fleets; and although he had ordered seven ships of the line to repair to Hampton Roads, in Chesapeake Bay, the Marquis de Vaudreuil was the only officer who was able to execute that order.

On the tenth of July, 1780, Chevalier Ternay's fleet, consisting of seven ships of the line, two frigates, a cutter, a bomb-ship, and thirty-two transports, with six thousand French troops, under the command of Count De Rochambeau, arrived at New York. At that time, the combined squadrons of Admirals Arbuthnot and Graves, which were in the harbor of New York, amounted to ten sail of the line; and Sir Henry Clinton embarked eight thousand men for the purpose of proceeding to Rhode Island; but, after reaching Huntington Bay, having ascertained that troops were marching from Connecticut and Massachusetts to join the French army, and that Washington had crossed the Hudson with the evident intention of attacking New York, he abandoned the expedition and returned to that city.

Sir George Rodney, having been appointed to the chief command in the West Indies, received orders to proceed, in his way thither, with a strong squadron, to the relief of Gibraltar, which had been so closely blockaded since the commencement of hostilities between Spain and Great Britain, that the garrison was reduced to great extremity, both with respect to provisions, and munitions of war. On the eighth of January, 1780, he fell in with and captured a convoy bound from St. Sebastian's to Cadiz, consisting of fifteen sail of merchantmen, under the protection of a sixty-four, four frigates, and two smaller vessels.

On the sixteenth, he discovered a Spanish squadron of eleven ships of the line, under Don Juan Langara, off Cape St. Vincent, which, being inferior to him in force, the admiral endeavored to avoid an action; when Rodney threw out the signal for a general chase, with orders to engage, as the ships came up, in rotation, taking, at the same time, the lee-gage, to prevent a retreat. The engagement was commenced, by the headmost

ships, about four o'clock in the afternoon, and their fire was returned by the Spaniards, with great spirit. Early in the action, the ship *San Domingo*, of seventy guns, and a crew of six hundred men, was blown up, and all on board perished. Although the night was dark and tempestuous, the pursuit and battle was continued till two o'clock the next morning, when the van ship in the Spanish line struck to Rodney. The admiral's ship of eighty guns, with five of seventy, were taken; but two of them were wrecked on the coast, and the British prize officers and crew were made prisoners. Four, only, of the Spanish ships escaped. After despatching a large portion of his fleet to convoy his prizes to England, under the command of Admiral Digby, and executing his commission at Gibraltar, Rodney proceeded, about the middle of February, to the West Indies. He arrived at St. Lucia on the twenty-seventh of March; and, having learned that Admiral De Guichen, with a fleet of twenty-three sail of the line, and a fifty gun ship, had put to sea, from Martinico, he sailed in pursuit of him, with twenty ships of the line; but the fleets did not meet until the seventeenth of April, when there was a partial engagement, in which several ships in each line sustained injury; and, the French fleet having taken shelter under Guadaloupe, Rodney took a position off Fort Bayol, where he remained for several days, and then returned to St. Lucia; but, receiving intelligence of the approach of Admiral De Guichen's fleet to the windward of Martinico, he put to sea, and got sight of it on the tenth of May; but De Guichen avoided an engagement, and returned to Martinico, and Rodney proceeded to Barbadoes.

A Spanish fleet of eighteen ships of the line, under Don Joseph Solano, arrived off Dominique, in June, and, being joined by Admiral De Guichen on the tenth, with an equal number, their combined force amounted to thirty-six sail of the line.

Admiral Rodney, having been apprised of the approach of the Spanish fleet, had sailed from Barbadoes, for the purpose of intercepting it before it joined the French; but, having failed in that object, he proceeded to St. Lucia, where he was equally well situated for observing and counteracting the movements of the combined fleets, and for self-defence. Admirals De Guichen and Solano, however, remained inactive until the fifth of July, when they sailed in the night; but a misunderstanding between the French and Spanish commanders rendered their junction, and superiority to the British force, inconsequential; and after De Guichen had accompanied Don Solano as far as St. Domingo, he left the Spanish fleet to proceed to Havana, and went to Cape Francois, where he remained until a large convoy was collected from the French islands, and then sailed directly for Europe.

Admiral Rodney, entertaining a mistaken apprehension that De Guichen was bound to North America, to join Admiral Ternay at Rhode Island, he sailed immediately, with eleven ships of the line, and four frigates, for New York.

During these resultless operations of the fleets in the West Indies, the united French and Spanish squadrons in the European seas were more successful. A large convoy, for the East and West Indies, sailed from Portsmouth the latter part of July, under the protection of a ship of the line and two frigates, which was intercepted, on the ninth of August, by the combined fleets, under the command of Don Louis De Cordova. The convoy included, besides merchantmen, eighteen provision, store, and

transport ships, which were destined for the naval service in the West Indies, and five East Indiamen, with arms, ammunition, and a train of artillery, together with a large quantity of naval stores for the supply of the British squadrons in that quarter. The East India ships, and fifty of those bound to the West Indies, including those chartered by the government, were taken, and carried into Cadiz. The prisoners, including twelve hundred soldiers, amounted to two thousand four hundred and sixty-five. The ships of war, and a few of the West Indiamen, escaped.

Admiral Rodney, having returned from the American coast to St. Lucia, towards the close of the year, made an attempt to recover the island of St. Vincent; but after landing a number of soldiers and marines, under General Vaughan, on the sixteenth of December, it was discovered that the French were in such force, and their works so impregnable, it was determined to abandon the expedition, and the troops were re-embarked the next day.

The year 1781 was rendered memorable by the establishment of that important maritime league called the "armed neutrality;" when Russia, which was the last of the European nations that entered the career of navigation, assumed a most commanding attitude, as the projector and head of that formidable and glorious alliance for the vindication of the
FREEDOM OF THE SEAS.

The rapid advancement of the Muscovites from a semi-barbarous, to the exalted position of one of the mightiest sovereignties of modern times, is the most extraordinary and wonderful phenomenon in the annals of the human race. Russia, like Rome, commenced her experiment in marine enterprise by the construction of ships of war; for neither of those immense empires combined commerce with navigation, until they had caused the imperial eagles to be respected on the sea, as well as on the land, by the efficiency of their fleets, and the splendor of their naval victories.

When Peter the Great ascended the throne, in 1696, Archangel was the only seaport in his dominions; but he soon perceived that it was necessary to have squadrons in the Baltic and the Black Sea, to enable him to resist the assaults of Turkey on his southeastern frontier, and Sweden on the northwestern. He had, however, still more enlightened and enlarged prospective views than were included within the means of mere defence against foreign aggression, or for successfully prosecuting offensive wars. He determined to elevate the character of his subjects, and increase the resources and power of his vast domain, by the introduction of letters, science, and the arts; the development of the products of agriculture and the mines; the establishment of manufactories, and the extension of mercantile intercourse with other portions of the globe. To accomplish those grand objects, he invited literary and scientific instructors to fill the first stations in his public academies, and intelligent navigators and artificers from Germany, France, and other kingdoms, to seek employment and honorable rewards in Russia; and in 1698 he went to Holland and England, and labored as a carpenter and blacksmith in the dock-yards of Sardam and Deptford, to acquire a knowledge of naval architecture, and to become personally acquainted with the process of ship-building, in all its multifarious details. Before his return, he visited the colleges, public schools, arsenals, and manufactories of those nations, that he might be enabled to have imitated, in his own realm, whatever he discovered that was best calculated to facilitate the realization, in the most speedy and certain

manner, of the magnificent plans of improvement which he had conceived for the aggrandizement of his empire.

Being involved in a war with Turkey, he established a navy-yard on the river Don ; and, in 1705, an eighty gun ship was launched in his presence ; and, in 1709, he had the proud satisfaction of beholding two ships of the line and a frigate added to his fleet at Azov.

Having regained the provinces of Ingria and Livonia, and the command of the river Neva, at the commencement of the war with Charles XII., of Sweden, he determined to establish a port on the Gulf of Finland, that he might obtain a share of the commerce of the Baltic ; and, in the year 1703, the foundation of the city of Petersburg was commenced.

Being enabled to put in requisition all the moral and physical resources of absolute power, and eager to accomplish the desired object, Peter prosecuted the work with such a determined and energetic spirit, and such unremitted industry, that, in less than nine years, the seat of empire was transferred from Moscow to the new capital. Merchants from other nations were encouraged to establish themselves there, and a large number of the nobles, traders, artists, and other classes of Russians, having been required to erect palaces, houses, stores, and workshops, St. Petersburg soon became a place of commercial consequence. Ships of war were built, and a victory having been gained in 1714 over the Swedish fleet, in which the emperor acted in the subordinate capacity of a captain of one of the large ships, under the orders of the admiral, he obtained a commanding influence in the Baltic. In the mean time, every possible exertion was made to increase his marine force in the Black Sea ; and, having discovered the great advantages which his subjects had derived from navigation, and the aid which his naval squadrons in those seas had afforded in the prosecution of the wars with the Ottoman empire, and the fiery genius who swayed the sceptre of Sweden, he became desirous of opening a trade with the East, through the Caspian Sea and the river Volga, which traversed his extensive realm, from Moscow to Astracan.

In conformity to these views, he fitted out a fleet at Astracan, in 1722, in which was embarked a large body of troops, for the ostensible purpose of chastising some of the Tartar and Persian tribes who had committed depredations on his southeastern frontier. This expedition having been successful, a treaty of peace was concluded, and several provinces ceded to Russia, which were highly important acquisitions, in consequence of the commerce which was thus secured with Persia, and all the other oriental nations, even as far as China ; and the extensive and very valuable fisheries which were speedily established on the borders of that sea.

As a monarch, Peter I. of Russia has not been equalled in ancient or modern times, in scope of conception, energy of purpose, indomitable perseverance, creative genius, and promptness, skill, and vigor, in execution. In the brief period of thirty years, he enabled Russia to emerge from a state of barbarism, and assume a pre-eminent position among the most powerful nations of Europe. He was, in truth, "an Anachorsis among the Scythians ;" but, instead of returning from the modern capitals of learning and refinement, to the uncivilized regions of his nativity, a mere philosopher, as did the unfortunate disciple of Solon from ancient Athens, he appeared a crowned sovereign, invested with ample power to command obedience to his lessons of instruction. The one endeavored to persuade, while the other peremptorily ordered, his ignorant countrymen to become

an enlightened, industrious, prosperous, and mighty people ; the future arbiters of the eastern hemisphere.

No such man has ever before lived. With the prescience of a prophet, he clearly discerned the distant future in the vast mirror of past ages ; and remembering the confidence of the inspired chieftain of the Israelites, he boldly worked onward, undoubting and sanguine, in the glorious fruition of all his majestic plans for the advancement of his subjects to the highest point of moral and national grandeur. Other princes have exalted the character of nations which had already reached an elevated position in the progress of civilization. Alexander, Henry IV., of France, Frederick II., of Prussia, and Napoleon, increased the lustre of their realms by the splendor of their victories, the important seminaries which they founded for the development of genius, the liberal patronage which they extended for the advancement of the industrial arts, and the enlightened measures which they adopted for improving the condition of the people ; but the northern Cæsar created an empire in the midst of a wilderness, and reared his magnificent throne on the prostrated customs, ignorance, prejudices, and rude institutions of savage tribes, whose unchanged debasement, from the earliest ages, had rendered the appellation of their common country the synonyme of the lowest state of human degradation. He did not, like Constantine, found a new capital as the last city of refuge for an illustrious race of imperial sovereigns, and the destined tomb of an expiring nation. Instead of fleeing from internal convulsions, civil war, and threatened invasion, and abandoning his native land and the graves of his illustrious ancestors to ruthless conquerors, in search of a place of safety, in a distant region, he erected a modern Rome, even far beyond the fabulous borders of the ferocious Cimbri and Dacians, who had often menaced the destruction of the ancient emporium of the subjugated globe ; and this has more effectually perpetuated his name and wonderful achievements than has ever been done by any monument which regal ambition or public gratitude and munificence has reared to commemorate the deeds of man, or the momentous events of nations.

The measures which Peter the Great adopted, and energetically carried into effect, to extend the navigation and commerce of Russia, equally claimed the attention of his imperial successors ; but Catharine II. accomplished more than all the others. In the year 1769, while her armies were harassing the Ottomans on the banks of the Pruth, the Danube, and the Dniester, and her fleets were triumphing in the Black Sea, she resolved to attack them in the Levant ; and measures were vigorously prosecuted for accomplishing that grand object. The dock-yards of Archangel, Cronstadt, and Revel, were thronged with workmen, and the keels of as many ships laid, as could be simultaneously built at those several naval establishments. Officers and seamen, in the mean time, were collected from England, Denmark, and other maritime nations, and, to the astonishment of all Europe, two squadrons sailed for the Mediterranean, in September, which were soon followed by a third, under Vice-Admiral Elphinstone. The united force consisted of twenty sail of the line, six frigates, a number of bomb-ketches, galleys, and transports, and displayed, for the first time, the naval flag of Russia in the Archipelago.

This fleet was commanded by Admiral Spinidoff ; but he was under the orders of General Alexius Orlof. The Turkish fleet, under the Capudan Pasha, Yaffien Bey, had anchored in the harbor of the island of Demnos ;

but, on the approach of the Russians, retired to the channel that separates the isle of Scio from Anatolia. The Ottoman ships were superior in number, amounting to over thirty sail, and occupied a strong position behind a number of small islands and ledges. The Russians, however, prepared to attack them on the fifth of July. As they advanced, the Capudan Pasha, whose flag was flying on board the Sultan, of ninety guns, led the van, and offered battle to Admiral Spinidoff. The ships closed, and the efforts of courage were terrible on both sides. Showers of balls and grenades interchangeably crossed the decks of the two admirals. The Sultan caught fire, and the Russian commander not being able to disengage himself, they both blew up together. The sea was covered with their smoking fragments. The admirals, and a few of the officers, were the only persons who escaped the disaster. After this awful calamity, the battle was renewed with redoubled fury, until dark, when the fleets separated. The Turks entered the narrow and shoal bay of Tchesme, in the peninsula between the gulfs of Smyrna and Scola Nova, where some of their vessels ran aground, and the others were so crowded together that they could not act efficiently. The next day, Vice-Admiral Elphinstone was stationed at the entrance of the bay, to prevent the Turks from escaping; and a number of fire-ships having been prepared and placed under the protection of a detachment of four ships of the line and two frigates, commanded by Vice-Admiral Greig, he proceeded, about midnight, to the attack. One of the fire-ships having been secured to a Turkish vessel, the whole fleet was speedily wrapt in flames, and every ship destroyed.

After this unexampled victory, the Russian fleet proceeded to Paros, the most commanding position in the Grecian seas, as a naval station, being situated about midway between the Morea and Asia Minor.

Having conquered the Crimea, and extended the bounds of her empire from the Don to the Dniester, on the northwestern coast of the Black Sea, and to the Kuban on the eastern, Catharine, at last, obtained, by the treaty of peace which was concluded with the Sublime Porte, at Kainandgi, in 1774, the free navigation of the Euxine, and the important right of passing the Dardanelles, which had been closed against all nations for two hundred years. This opened to Russia an immense field for maritime adventure. The cities of Taganrock on the Sea of Azov, Senastapol, in the Crimea, and Cherson, on the estuary of the Dnieper, were successively founded; and, so rapidly did they increase, that the latter, which was commenced in 1778, contained forty thousand inhabitants in 1783. Besides a large naval force, including many ships of the line, the Russians had several hundred sail of merchant vessels, which traded with the Turkish ports of the Black Sea and the Levant.

The internal navigation from the White and Baltic, to the Black and Caspian Seas, was improved, by canals, and the removal of obstructions in the Volga, the Don, the Dnieper, and the northern Dwina; and, arrangements having been made with the Persian Court, highly favorable to those new commercial emporiums, the Tigris and Euphrates again became the channels of intercommunication between the ancient Grecian ports of the Euxine, and the Indian Ocean—rivers ever memorable in the history of nations, from the facilities of intercourse which they afforded between the East and the West;—gave to "Nineveh, that great city," to "mighty Babylon," and magnificent Palmyra, Solomon's "Tadmor in the wilderness," their wealth, power, splendor, and ever-during renown.

The American revolution had excited deep interest in all the courts of Europe, and the effects of the war between Great Britain and France and Spain, were not only severely felt by Holland, but by all the northern nations, in their commercial intercourse with the two latter kingdoms. Their navigation was interrupted, and subjected to vexatious detentions and unwarrantable captures by the fleets of Great Britain, as the government claimed and exercised the right of searching neutral vessels for articles contraband of war, and enemies' property, which so excited the resentment of those outraged nations, that Catharine II. at last determined to adopt measures for protecting her commerce against such audacious and insulting molestations in future. Negotiations were, therefore, opened with France, Sweden, and Denmark, in 1780, for maturing a plan that would enable them to maintain their maritime rights inviolate, which resulted in the memorable treaty of ARMED NEUTRALITY, by which they agreed to use FORCE for the security of their ships against VISITATION AND SEARCH. Prussia, Austria, Spain, and Holland, soon after united with those nations in that bold and energetic measure; and the co-operation of the United States having been early requested by Catharine, Congress adopted the following resolution, on the fifth of October, 1780:—

“Her Imperial Majesty, of all the Russias, attentive to the freedom of commerce and the rights of nations, in her declaration to the belligerent and neutral powers, having proposed regulations founded upon principles of justice, equity, and moderation, of which their Most Christian and Catholic Majesties, and most of the neutral maritime powers of Europe, have declared their approbation;—

“Congress, willing to testify their regard to the rights of commerce, and their respect for the sovereign who both proposed and the powers who have approved the said regulation: therefore, Resolved, that the Board of Admiralty prepare and report instructions for the commanders of armed vessels commissioned by the United States, conformable to the principles contained in the declaration of the Empress of all the Russias, on the rights of neutral vessels:

“That the ministers plenipotentiary from the United States, if invited thereto, be, and hereby are respectively empowered to accede to such regulations, conformable to the spirit of the said declaration, as may be agreed upon by the Congress expected to assemble, in pursuance of the invitation of Her Imperial Majesty.”

Thus, a power, which, however great in other respects, was still very inferior in consequence, in a naval point of view, became the dictator to the world of a new code of maritime laws, essentially different from those which had been established for several hundred years among commercial nations; and having for their chief object, the overthrow of that sovereignty on the ocean which had been arrogated by Great Britain. Every possible effort was made, by the English ministry, to break up that powerful and alarming league, but without success; and, not being in a condition to contravene the principles which had been so determinedly assumed, they were, for the time, practically established as a part of the law of nations.

The great principle of the armed neutrality was, that “FREE SHIPS MAKE FREE GOODS;” and this was so far extended, that it was declared neutral States had a right to carry on commerce with nations in a state of war, with the same degree of convenience, ease, and safety, as in time of

peace ; that neutrals had a right to carry and render, free, all things, from one port of a belligerent nation to another, without let or impediment, saving only such articles as were deemed contraband of war, by the stipulations of former treaties ; and to freely navigate the coasts of nations at war ; and that by ports blockaded, were to be considered only such as were so strictly watched by the armed ships of the powers which invested them, that to enter would be dangerous.

Great exertions were made by the Empress of Russia to enable her to maintain the principles and enforce the regulations which were established by the treaties that had been concluded by all the maritime nations of the globe, except England and Portugal, for the freedom of navigation, so far, at least, as regarded her own commercial fleets ; and, twelve ships of the line having been built at Cherson, and eight at Cronstadt, the imperial marine amounted to forty-two ships of the line for the Baltic, and twelve for the Euxine, before the close of the year 1781, when the armed neutrality fearlessly displayed its flag in all the northern seas, and the Mediterranean.

So eminent were the talents of Catharine II., so ably were the complicated, difficult, and onerous duties of her exalted station performed, and so splendid was her reign, that she has been appropriately designated by the expressive appellation of the "NORTHERN SEMIRAMIS." NEARCHUS.

ART. II.—NAVAL AND MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY.

COMMODORE JOHN DRAKE SLOAT.

"Retinens vestigia famæ."

THE importance of our late national acquisition on the borders of the Pacific Ocean, whereby a vast and fruitful territory, in a salubrious climate, containing one of the best harbors in the world, is secured for the supply and protection of our extensive whaling interest in that quarter, seems to call for a passing notice of the distinguished officer by whom the enterprise was so promptly conducted, and so happily consummated ; a result showing that other qualities than personal bravery are necessary to constitute able commanders, as well as to the attainment of great ends ;—that a knowledge of human nature, and diplomatic skill, have proved as successful as the sword ; thus humanely averting the sorrows which usually follow in the train of the conqueror. And we hope, by recounting some incidents in the life of this gallant and scientific seaman, we shall stimulate the future heroes of our navy—the guardians of our commerce—no less with a high sense of moral responsibility, than a praiseworthy emulation of professional skill.

JOHN DRAKE SLOAT was born in Goshen, Orange county, New York ; the posthumous son of Captain John Sloat, whose unfortunate fate it was to be accidentally shot by a sentinel, near his quarters in Rockland county, just before the close of the war by which the independence of his country was achieved, and in which he served with credit. His widow survived her sudden bereavement but a short period, and the care of this, their only son, devolved on his maternal relatives, who seem to have been properly impressed with the responsibility they had assumed. Their protégé was well instructed in mathematics, and in the rudiments of an English education—all that our country schools afforded

at that period. As his grandfather Drake (a descendant of a collateral branch of the family of the celebrated admiral and circumnavigator) was wont to relate the adventures of his illustrious relative, he did not fail to inspire his charge with a thirst for travel and enterprise. The taste thus inculcated, so fully displayed itself in youth as to induce our young adventurer to quit an endeared fireside for a berth in the navy, that he might the better gratify his predilection.

This was during our quasi war with France, and in the heyday of our naval successes over the haughty flag of the Directory. It was at a period, too, when the revolutionary service of the sire presented an irresistible claim for the public employment of the deserving son; and we find, by the navy register, that a midshipman's warrant was granted to our aspirant, on the twelfth of February, 1800.

Mr. Sloat was ordered to the frigate "President," Commodore Truxton, who took command of her soon after his gallant exploits in the "Constellation;"—(the capture of the French frigates, "L'Insurgente," and "La Vengeance.") It was young Sloat's good fortune here, also, to serve under that strict disciplinarian and accomplished officer, Commodore Chauncey, at that time first lieutenant of the "President." With such models before him, during a lengthened service in the south of Europe, he was enabled to lay the foundation of a professional reputation which has proved no less creditable to himself than honorable to his country.

Disappointment, so common in life, soon interposed to blast, for a time, the prospects of our naval debutant. The profligate sway of the Directory being overthrown, the First Consul, happy to relieve his new-born power from the difficulties and unpopularity of an American war, accepted terms for peace. Those terms, proffered by Mr. Adams, and by which he expected to retain power, were far from being advantageous to us. By stipulating to restore the national vessels of France which had been captured, we gave up the trophies of victory, and purchased peace at the cost of fourteen millions of dollars,* (the amount of her spoiliations on our commerce,) without an equivalent. A bill for compromising these claims, thus assumed by our government, it will be remembered, was passed by Congress at its last session, and vetoed by the Executive.

At the reduction of the navy, which took place upon Mr. Jefferson's accession to the presidency, in 1801, Mr. Sloat took a furlough; and the prospect of active employment being so remote, he, with many others, neglected to report himself at its expiration; thereby virtually abandoning the service. He had acquired such knowledge of seamanship as enabled him to command merchant vessels, which he navigated with success long before he attained his majority. His grandfather Drake having deceased about this time, bequeathed him a valuable property, including twelve slaves, which were manumitted as soon as they came into his possession.

Fond of the sea, he disposed of his estate, and embarked his all in a vessel of which he took command, and sustained great loss during several successive voyages; commerce being more of a lottery during the European wars than now. Nothing daunted, however, by these frowns

* See Mr. Rice's able article on *French spoiliations*, in the October number of this work.

of fortune, Mr. Sloat pursued the course he had marked out for himself, with various success, until the war with England, of 1812, threw him out of business. Thus circumstanced, he gladly availed himself of an offer made by his old and esteemed friend, Commodore Decatur, to become sailing master of the frigate "United States," with promise of an early opportunity to regain his rank. The promise was soon fulfilled; for, on the 25th of October, 1812, the British frigate "Macedonian" was captured in single combat, under the following circumstances:—The enemy tenaciously maintained the weather-gage for some time, which enabled him advantageously to discharge his long guns at a distance beyond the reach of the carronades of the "United States." At length, an unfortunate manœuvre of the enemy enabled Mr. Sloat to bring him to close quarters, whereby the battle came to a speedy and successful issue. Though wounded in the face, he did not quit his post during the action. For his gallantry and skill, at the recommendation of Commodore Decatur, Mr. Sloat was immediately promoted to the rank of lieutenant.

The "United States" arrived off New London, on the fourth of December, where she was blockaded for the remainder of the war. During the period which thus intervened, Lieutenant Sloat married a daughter of the late James Gordon, Esq., a Norwich merchant of high respectability.

At the restoration of peace, Mr. Sloat took another furlough, and again engaged in commerce. He purchased and took command of the clipper "Transit," and loaded her for France. It so happened that he was with this schooner at Nantz, at the period when the public life of the great Napoleon was closed forever. In order to rescue the Emperor, several schemes were entertained; and, amongst others, Mr. Sloat arranged to receive him, with his suite, on board the "Transit," and to transport them to the United States. This plan, so happily alluded to in the journal of a French officer, was frustrated by the indecision that marked the conduct of the friends of the Emperor on this occasion, and which eventuated in the surrender of the fallen hero, to the British blockading squadron.

Mr. Sloat was first lieutenant of the "Franklin," under the veteran Commodore Stewart, during a large portion of that vexatious cruise in the Pacific, from 1820 to 1822, while on her borders were exhibited continued scenes of revolutionary contest.

He was first lieutenant to Commodore Biddle in the "Congress" frigate in 1823, and by great skill saved her when in imminent peril during a convulsion of nature which occurred at La Guayra, in the autumn of that year. Mr. David Winton, an aged seaman, now an inmate of that invaluable institution, the "*Sailor's Snug Harbor*," has thus related to us the circumstances of it:—

"Commodore Biddle was ashore when an earthquake sunk the southwest part of the city. This was succeeded by a hurricane which drove from their moorings, and entirely destroyed twenty-two merchant vessels, and a Colombian man-of-war, with their crews: five only out of the whole were picked up by a boat from the Congress. This boat and crew, consisting of a quarter-master and four men, were lost directly after, in endeavoring to afford further relief."

"At the beginning of the blow Mr. Sloat ordered the boatswain to pipe all hands, when he urged us to obey the officers and stand by the ship—promising full pay and rations till we should reach home, in case the ship was wrecked. We

parted our chain and other cables, excepting the best bower, which so dragged as to bring us near enough to pitch a biscuit to the rocks. I never have witnessed so hopeless a prospect as ours at that moment, and thank God we were enabled safely to ride it out. Soon as the blow abated, Commodore Biddle came on board on a catamarine,* and praised Mr. Sloat in the highest terms, for his skill in saving the 'Congress,' when every other vessel in the port was lost.

"We immediately left for Curacoa, to get a supply of cables and anchors, for the want of which we had to hazard a run on the wash."

Mr. Sloat soon after took command of the schooner "Grampus," on the African station, where his services in suppressing the slave trade were highly commended by the Colonization Society. His activity and enterprise marked him as an efficient officer, for checking the piracies prevalent in the West Indies in 1824-5; and he was ordered to cruise among the Windward Islands. While at St. Thomas, a fire broke out, and as no reliance could be placed on the slave population, the city must have fallen a sacrifice to the flames, but for the intrepidity of Captain Sloat, his officers and crew.

A large subscription was made by the inhabitants and tendered, but which was respectfully declined by Captain Sloat, on behalf of his officers and men.

For the following narrative the writer is indebted to the kindness of an officer who was attached to the *Grampus* at the period referred to:—

"While at St. Thomas, in March, 1825, information was obtained by Governor Von Scholten, that Cofrecinas, a pirate of celebrity, was off Porto Rico, and he immediately communicated it to Captain Sloat, and laid an embargo on all vessels in port, that the expedition contemplated for his capture might not be made known.

"After cruising in vain for several days, Captain Sloat went into Ponce, Porto Rico, and had an understanding with the governor of that place, that in case he heard any firing along the coast, he was to order his horsemen to assemble at the spot. The next morning a suspicious sail was seen off the harbor, in a calm, and lest he should recognize and avoid the "*Grampus*," (for she was well known to them all,) a coasting sloop was filled below with seamen and marines, and sent in pursuit, under the command of the first lieutenant, now Captain Pendergrast. When the breeze sprung up in the afternoon, Cofrecinas' piratical vessel was discovered in an obscure harbor, called Boca de Infierno. He first ran for the sloop, which he knew, and felt sure of as a prize; but when within pistol shot to windward, the signal was given, and the seamen and marines springing from below, fired a broadside into the astonished pirate, which cleared his deck for a moment of all but the undaunted Cofrecinas, who was at the helm. His men, however, shortly returned to their duty, and they kept up a running fight for more than an hour, displaying great skill in endeavoring to out-manceuvre the sloop and escape. But after losing several of his men, he was forced to run the vessel ashore: the survivors jumped overboard, and waded through the water, amidst the grape and musketry of the sloop, which killed several. The sloop had a four pound carronade, as also had the pirate, but he was unable to fire it, as his men were shot down whenever they attempted it. On the shore they were surrounded by the soldiers, who, in accordance with the understanding, assembled on hear-

* A raft made of two logs lashed together.

ing the firing, and took the prisoners to St. John, the capital, where they were all shot by sentence of a court-martial."

A gentleman who witnessed the execution, stated, that when they attempted to blindfold Cofrecinas, he spurned the handkerchief and the priest, and cried in a loud voice, "I have killed hundreds with my own hands, and I know how to die. Fire!" He fell, the last and most daring of the pirates of that region. In his vessel were found a few goods, the remains of the cargo of a French brig taken a short time before, and whose crew and passengers he had murdered. The manner in which the information was obtained which led to the capture of this pirate may be worthy of record. Cofrecinas had taken, only a short time before he was discovered, the sloop in which he was cruising when captured. The master of the sloop proved to be an old acquaintance, and he appealed to Cofrecinas to spare his life, his men being compelled to join the pirates; but Cofrecinas told him that their rule was to kill all that did not join them, and that he was unable to save him from his men, but that he could spare him till sunset. The master of the sloop then went below and brought up a demijohn of wine, and handed it to the pirates, who were feasting on his provisions—his respite till sunset was confirmed by them. They asked him if he could swim, to which, with great presence of mind, he answered in the negative, and begged not to be thrown overboard, but to have a more immediate death, which they smilingly promised. He then went into his little cabin to collect his thoughts. He saw that the shore was about two miles off; it was falling calm, and the pirates carousing at anchor off Foxardo. He now cast off the boat from the stern, and let her drift away. As soon as he supposed they might discover it, he slipped over the stern very quietly, and swam to the bow. As soon as they perceived the boat adrift, their attention was absorbed in devising means to regain her, and the late commander was forgotten in the confusion, or supposed to be at his prayers in the cabin. He was an excellent swimmer, and struck out lustily for the shore. He was soon discovered and fired at, but dove at the flash, as he told it, and swimming under water, came up in a different place each time to breathe, and dove again instantly, until out of reach of shot. There being no wind, they could not get under way, and he had secreted the oars, so that the boat could not be used to overtake him. After sunset he gained the beach, almost exhausted; crawled a little way up the shore, and slept in the sand until daylight, when he found his way to St. Thomas, to inform the governor and commander of the "Grampus" of his adventure. He accompanied Lieutenant Pendergrast, and on her recapture, his sloop was immediately restored to him by Captain Sloat, after repairing the sails, which were riddled by shot, and the hull, which was but slightly injured.*

* Cofrecinas was visited by the officers in his prison, who found him a young man of twenty-six or twenty-seven, with a handsome, intelligent countenance, and a very amiable expression. His eye was of remarkable brilliancy, and he had all the suavity of the Spanish manner, with a very gentlemanly bearing. He would never have been taken for a murderer or pirate. Though badly wounded, he was in irons, and a soldier was stationed at his bedside; the guards were doubled around the prison, and unusual precautions taken, from a knowledge of his daring and energy; and the officer was made responsible with his head for the security of his prisoner. He said that the moment the Americans rose from the hold of the sloop, he knew the uniform, and felt that his own men could never stand before them—his only safety was in flight. He gave great credit to the officers for the plan and accomplishment of his capture, and said if he could escape, he would spend his life with such men. On being asked how it was that one who was evidently a gentleman of education could be found among such persons as his men, he replied that the

The following is an extract of a letter from Lieutenant Commandant John D. Sloat, commanding United States schooner *Grampus*, to the Secretary of the Navy, dated St. Thomas, April 5, 1825 :—

"Under date of the 19th of March, I had the honor to inform you that I had visited St. John, Porto Rico, for the purpose of offering our testimony against the pirates that made their escape from the vessel taken on the south side of the island, when the captain-general assured me that these miscreants should have summary justice.

"On my arrival at this place yesterday, I had the satisfaction to receive the information that all who made their escape from the vessel (eleven) were shot on the 30th ultimo. They all, except one, met their fate in the most hardened manner. The celebrated Cofrecinas refused to be blindfolded, saying that he himself had murdered at least three or four hundred persons, and it would be strange if by this time he should not know how to die. From his and other confessions, twenty-eight others have been taken, and seventeen are to be executed in a few days, and the remainder in a short time after. Those already executed have been beheaded and quartered, and their parts sent to all the small ports round the island to be exhibited.

"This capture is thought by the government of the island to be of the greatest importance; and it is believed, from the number taken and convicted, that it will be for a long time a complete check to piracies about that island."

The next sea service in which we find Captain Sloat engaged after his promotion to a master commander, (which took place March 21, 1826,) was a three years' cruise in the Pacific, in the sloop of war *St. Louis*, commencing in 1828. While lying at Callao, in the spring of 1831, a re-

best answer would be a short history of his life. He was born at Cabo Roxo, (Porto Rico;)—his father was a gentleman of wealth, but was cheated out of it;—that, instead of inheriting a splendid patrimony, he had been compelled to resort to gambling and piracy to get back what the world owed him;—that, some years before, in the beginning of his career, he had been robbing, with two negroes, in a canoe;—that a storm drove them into an obscure port in St. Domingo, where he was imprisoned more than a year;—that he became a favorite with the jailer's wife and daughter, and was treated like one of the family;—that he used to go for wood and water, milk the cows, &c.;—that he secreted a canoe, and with his two confederates, during a most tremendous storm, such as are common in the tropics, they dropped down the river, and at daylight put to sea, and reached the island of Mona, exhausted by fatigue and hunger. There they procured turtle, water, &c., and, after recruiting their strength, finally reached his native place. They then took a large boat, engaged the crew to join them, and made some rich captures, all of which they gambled away, and then went in pursuit of more, never allowing any witnesses to remain unless they joined his crew. He said he was the most active man, and the best runner on the island, and related this incident:—One night, while he was gambling at a house in the woods, near Cabo Roxo, the police were informed of it, and paid him the compliment of sending a captain and twenty soldiers to take him;—that the officer surrounded the house, stationed all his sentinels, and made all his arrangements, without the suspicions of any one inside;—he then knocked at the door with the hilt of his sword. Cofrecinas knew the clangor of the steel, understood the whole by intuition, threw open the window behind him, jumped beyond the bayonets that met his view, escaped the shot of the soldiers, jumped a fence as high as he could reach (about seven feet) at a bound, escaped another volley, and gained the woods, where he laughed them to scorn.

At the capture of his vessel, when he waded ashore, and avoided the first of the horsemen in the confusion, he met a herdsman—he made him exchange clothes and hat with him, and drove some animals directly to the body of soldiers in the road. He was questioned by them about the pirates, and gave plausible, but false information, of his scattered band. He passed all but the last soldier, who was accompanied by a boy who knew Cofrecinas, who was singularly marked from his birth, by having the second and third fingers of both hands inseparably joined. This caught the boy's eye, and he told the soldier that was Cofrecinas. He ordered him at once to halt, but he ran, and the soldier shot him in the neck. He fell, but instantly sprang to his feet, and with his knife would have soon overcome the soldier and escaped, had not the shot attracted some others. While struggling with the soldier, he was prostrated by a blow from the butt of a carbine, which, with others, made his side black from the shoulder to the hip. His hands were tied, and his feet secured under the body of the horse on which he was placed; and he was thus brought, black and blue, to the prison.

volution occurred in the government of Peru, which placed Captain Sloat in a delicate and peculiar situation, as General La Fuente, the ex-vice-president of the republic, and General Miller, took refuge in his ship. An interesting account of this affair is contained in a letter from General Miller, dated Callao Bay, April 19, 1831, from which we make the following extracts :—"General Gamarra left Lima in September last for Cuzco, in order to suppress a conspiracy in that city. Agreeable to the constitution, the vice-president, General La Fuente, took the supreme command ; his conduct to my certain knowledge has been correct, honorable, and faithful to the state, as well as to the president. Unfortunately the president left his wife at Lima, and she being of a dictatorial and domineering spirit, wished to rule the vice-president as she had done her husband, who, in fact, never resisted her wishes on any subject. This high-spirited and ambitious woman fomented an opposition, which was strengthened by false friends of the president, and some other designing and unprincipled men. Every act of La Fuente was construed by these miscreants as hostile to the president, and the vilest slanders were invented and published by the faction. The truth is, that the administration of La Fuente had increased in popularity by the active and straight-forward course pursued.

"The president, imposed upon by these artful misrepresentations, was led to believe that La Fuente was hostile, and endeavoring to supplant him. Communications were doubtless brought from head-quarters by a Colonel Vidal, to the chiefs and officers of the garrisons of this port and Lima. That of the latter was composed of the battalion of Zepeta, 700 strong, some artillery, and 200 cavalry. The commanding officer of Zepeta, and the artillery, were known to act in blind obedience to the heroine, (Mrs. Gamarra,) and for several days the vice-president, ministers and myself, knew a revolution was meditated. It was determined that Zepeta should be sent to the south, agreeably to the repeated request of the president ; and the government, confiding in its innocence, conceived that the most zealous friends of Gamarra could have no real interest in deposing the vice-president, especially as it was known that his anxious desire was to deliver over the government to the president, who was expected to reach Lima in a few days. However, to the surprise and indignation of the friends of order, the light company of Zepeta, about 8 o'clock in the evening of the 16th inst., entered the house of General La Fuente, fired several shot, and endeavored to force their way into the room in which he was in bed. At the alarm, he sprang up, and forcing his way through several soldiers, effected his escape to the kitchen, and through the chimney of which he gained the roof, and from thence he was hotly pursued by an officer, who was shot dead by his own soldiers, they mistaking him for the vice-president. The light company, disappointed of their object, hastily returned to their barracks, taking prisoners two friends of General La Fuente, who happened to be in the house at the time of the attack. The firing of the shots caused an immediate alarm in the streets adjoining the vice-president's house, and cries were heard in every direction, of—'*The battalion of Zepeta has revolted,*' and the inhabitants fled to their houses and closed the doors. At this moment I was lying in my bed from fatigue, having been ill for several days. Upon hearing the report from my aid-de-camp, to whom I had just given orders, as well as to Colonel Alende, to parade on horseback and in disguise, in certain streets of the city,

I immediately mounted, and rode to La Fuente's house, ascertained that it had been attacked by troops, and then rode to the barracks of the three companies of the battalion of Callao. I could only form two, one being on guard; and I then sent an officer to the barracks of Zepeta to ascertain what had occurred. He returned with a report that the corps was under arms, with General Elespron, Prefect of the Department, at their head, who sent word that he had taken measures against the person of General La Fuente, in consequence of his having infringed the constitution. He requested me at the same time to join him with the troops under my command, and adding, that he would hold me responsible for the attendant evils, if I did not comply with his wishes. To such a communication I made no reply, but sent orders to the cavalry to proceed to Callao, and I soon followed with the companies of infantry in the same direction, not doubting that the governor and garrison of the castle would act honorably towards the legitimate government which they had sworn to maintain. By this movement, I prevented compromising the troops, in firing upon each other in town, and thought to insure possession of the fortress until information could be obtained respecting the vice-president, of whose situation I was then ignorant. To my astonishment, on my arrival, at three o'clock on the 17th, I was refused admittance into the fortifications, and soon after learned that the governor, Colonel Echeniger, and the garrison, acted in combination with the revolutionists of Lima. I took possession of the dismantled fort of El Sol. On the same day a detachment of 300 of the revolted troops were allowed to enter the castles of Callao, under whose guns we were placed in the fort of El Sol, and I consented to hold an interview with General Benevedes, who had joined the revolutionists. The result was, I was allowed to come here and remain on board this vessel, until the president's arrival from the south, or order should be established so as to allow of my proceeding to the capital. I was surprised, on coming on board this ship, to find General La Fuente already here. On his gaining the roof of the house, it seems that three soldiers, stationed there, discharged their muskets at him, who was closely pursued by an officer, Lieutenant Bajar, sword in hand. They loaded a second time, and mistaking their leader for General La Fuente, shot him dead. On discovering their mistake, they ceased further pursuit of the fugitive, and to this circumstance the vice-president owes his escape. After running to the extreme end of the quadra on the roofs, and jumping over several brick walls, he lowered himself into the room of a carpenter whom he had often employed. This man clad the general in a suit of his own, and cut off his mustachios: he handed him also six doubloons, which were his all;—conducted him to the house of a friend, whence he proceeded to Chorrillos, and there taking a canoe, he came on board this ship, where he is as comfortable as the hospitality of her generous commander can make him, and as secure from persecuting assassins as the powerful flag of the United States can render him."

Captain Sloat acted in this business with the advice of our Legation at Lima; and his affording refuge to these distinguished, but unfortunate functionaries, was approved by our government.

Captain Sloat returned to New York in the winter of 1831-2, in the *St. Louis*. When within six miles of Sandy Hook he was blown to sea, and for twenty-one days unable to gain the port of New York. The crew suffered greatly by frost.

He was much engaged, for several succeeding years, in superintendence of the coast surveys and the recruiting service, as well as in other professional duties. He was advanced to a post-captaincy, the highest grade in our service, in February, 1837. The option having been tendered him by the department, of the command of the frigate "Potomac" or of the Portsmouth station, he preferred the latter, where he continued for three years, commencing in the autumn of 1840, and during which period he had ample opportunity of displaying his good taste and skill in naval architecture. Those proud specimens, the corvettes "Portsmouth" and "Saratoga," were constructed under his supervision; and he had the satisfaction, also, to superintend the rebuilding from the keel, of the "Congress" frigate, (now unsurpassed by any vessel afloat,) that he so gallantly saved in the early part of his career, and which followed him to the Pacific, and formed a part of his late command in that ocean.

Soon after Commodore Sloat left the Portsmouth station, he was offered the squadron in the Pacific, which he accepted, and joined in the autumn of 1844. He hoisted his broad pennant on board the "Savannah" frigate, and the success of his cruise there, will, we trust, result in lasting benefits to his country, and prove the crowning glory of his professional life. The non-arrival of Commodore Sloat's despatches, obliges us to give the following extract from the letter of an officer well known to us, and which only contains the information received of the most important movement of the squadron:—

"On the sixth of July, all was bustle in the cabin of the Savannah; some four or five men were busily employed writing letters, proclamations, &c., preparatory to taking possession of California. It was long after the witching hour of midnight, ere I was enabled to catch a short and troubled repose, as all was to be prepared by six o'clock the following morning, which came as bright and beautiful as a July day of our own favored land. At six o'clock, A. M., Captain Mervine came on board to receive orders, and at seven, he left with a summons to the military commandant of Monterey to surrender the place forthwith to the arms of the United States, and also a similar summons to the military governor for the surrender of all California.

"At nine, A. M., of the seventh of July, the expedition started from the Savannah, composed of the boats of the Savannah, Levant, and Cyane, and landed, without opposition, at the mole. The forces were then marched up a short distance to the custom-house, where a concourse of the inhabitants were assembled. Here the marines and men were halted, and the proclamation read to the multitude by Rodman M. Price, Esq., purser of the Cyane, in a loud and distinct manner, which was received with three hearty cheers by those present. The flag of the United States was then hoisted by acting Lieutenant Edward Higgins, immediately after which a salute of twenty-one guns was fired by the Savannah and Cyane. The custom-house was then turned into barracks for the United States forces, and everything settled down quietly.

"Communications were immediately despatched to Commander Montgomery, of the Portsmouth, at St. Francisco, at which place, and at Zanonía, the United States flag was hoisted on the morning of the ninth; and before ten days had elapsed, the whole of California, north of Monterey, was under the flag of the United States, much to the apparent satisfaction of the people, who hope it will last, knowing how much better they will be off under the government of the United States.

"On the sixteenth of July, Captain Stockton arrived, too late, however, to participate directly in taking possession of California.

"On the twenty-ninth, Commodore Sloat gave up the command to Commodore Stockton, hoisted his flag on board the Levant, and sailed for the United States, via Mazatlan and Panama, and we hope to reach the United States in November."

This proclamation is so well expressed, and such a conciliatory spirit pervades it throughout, that we feel justified in inserting it.

TO THE INHABITANTS OF CALIFORNIA.

The central government of Mexico having commenced hostilities against the United States of America, by invading its territory and attacking the troops of the United States stationed on the north side of the Rio Grande, with a force of seven thousand men, under the command of General Arista, which army was totally destroyed, and all their artillery, baggage, &c., captured, on the eighth and ninth of May last, by a force of two thousand three hundred men, under the command of General Taylor, and the city of Matamoras taken and occupied by the forces of the United States :—

The two nations being actually at war by this transaction, I shall hoist the standard of the United States at Monterey immediately, and shall carry it throughout California.

I declare to the inhabitants of California, that, although in arms with a powerful force, I do not come among them as an enemy to California, but, on the contrary, I come as their best friend, as henceforward California will be a portion of the United States, and its peaceable inhabitants will enjoy the same rights and privileges as the citizens of any other portion of that nation, with all the rights and privileges they now enjoy, together with the privilege of choosing their own magistrates and other officers, for the administration of justice among themselves; and the same protection will be extended to them as to any other State of the Union.

They will also enjoy a permanent government, under which life, property, and the constitutional rights, and lawful security to worship the Creator in a way most congenial to each one's sense of duty, will be secure; which, unfortunately, the central government of Mexico cannot afford them, destroyed as her resources are by internal factions and corrupt officers, who create constant revolutions to promote their own interests and oppress the people.

Under the flag of the United States, California will be free from all such troubles and expenses. Consequently, the country will rapidly advance and improve, both in agriculture and commerce, as, of course, the revenue laws will be the same in California as in all other parts of the United States, affording them all manufactures and produce of the United States free from any duty, and all foreign goods at one-quarter of the duty they now pay. A great increase in the value of real estate and the products of California may reasonably be expected.

With the great interest and kind feelings I know the government and people of the United States possess towards the citizens of California, the country cannot but improve more rapidly than any other on the continent of America.

Such of the inhabitants of California, whether natives or foreigners, as may not be disposed to accept the high privilege of citizenship, and to live peaceably under the free government of the United States, will be allowed time to dispose of their property, and to remove out of the country if they choose, without any restriction; or to remain in it, observing strict neutrality.

With full confidence in the honor and integrity of the inhabitants of the country, I invite the judges, alcaldes, and other civil officers, to retain their offices, and to execute their functions as heretofore, that the public tranquillity may not be disturbed, at least until the government of the territory can be more definitively arranged.

All persons holding titles of real estate, or in quiet possession of lands under color of right, shall have their titles and rights guaranteed to them. All churches, and the property they contain, in possession of the clergy of California, shall continue in the same rights and possession they now enjoy.

All provisions and supplies of every kind, furnished by the inhabitants for the use of the United States ships or troops, will be paid for at fair rates, and no private property will be taken for public use without just compensation at the moment.

JOHN D. SLOAT,

Commander-in-chief of the U. S. naval forces in the Pacific Ocean.
UNITED STATES SHIP SAVANNAH, Harbor of Monterey, July 6th, 1846.

For a description of this fine territory, which will, probably, one day be annexed to our galaxy of republics, and become peopled by the Anglo-Saxon race, we refer the reader to our article in the April number of this work, entitled "Life in California."

Half a century has nearly elapsed since Commodore Sloat entered the navy as a midshipman ; and few officers have been so constantly or usefully employed. He has participated in brilliant achievements, and been associated in duty with a number of those who have added lustre to our flag—none of whom have more zealously or efficiently devoted themselves to the protection of our commerce, or have a stronger claim upon the gratitude of our country.

Art. III.—NEW YORK : AND THE RAILROAD ENTERPRISE :

WITH REFERENCE TO THE POSITION AND PROSPECTS OF HER COMMERCIAL ASCENDANCY—MORE ESPECIALLY IN RELATION TO THE RAILROAD MOVEMENT.

SITUATED in a favorable latitude on the Atlantic coast, possessing a harbor highly eligible for safety and convenience, and of easy access from the ocean at all seasons of the year, for the largest ships, her position is eminently favorable for a coasting and foreign trade. Other Atlantic cities, however, possessing a liberal share of advantages, have contested the supremacy as the general mart of American commerce. For many years, the foreign commerce of the United States was mainly conducted by Boston, Philadelphia, and New York. The latter city enjoyed the advantage of the natural and superior tide-water navigation of the Hudson, extending its unbroken current one hundred and fifty miles into the interior ; while Philadelphia and Boston had very limited navigation to the interior.

The two latter cities, however, had, by the bays and inlets in their vicinity, a more extensive coasting trade ; and, from earlier settlement, greater capital and experience, for a long time commanded a greater general commerce than New York.

In improving her commerce by increasing facilities for communication with the interior, by turnpike roads, Philadelphia was early and vigorous in her efforts, while New York can claim to have had very little of that kind of enterprise. When the project for opening canals to the western and northern lakes was agitated in the State legislature, the representatives from the city, strange as it may seem, were opposed to the measure. It is but just, however, to remark, they regarded the project as too great for the then limited population, experience, and resources of the State ; and when the construction of about one hundred miles demonstrated the practicability and importance of the work, they gave it a vigorous support.

However favorable the situation for foreign commerce, it is obviously of the first importance to a commercial city, that it have extensive and easy communication with the interior.

Before the canals were completed, that is, the Erie and the Champlain, New York was second to Philadelphia in commercial importance. The completion of those great works in 1825, opened to New York new and vastly increased commercial advantages. The industry of the State was greatly stimulated, and it rapidly increased in population, wealth, and trade. The opening of a navigable communication from the Hudson to

the western lakes, gave New York the whole of the direct lake trade, (except the small part occasionally diverted to Canada,) and made the city of New York, at once, the greatest competitor with New Orleans for the trade of the great West. The several canals, and, more recently, railroads, that extend towards and connect with the navigable waters that fall into the Mississippi, have still further extended the commerce of New York. Under the impulse thus given, she rapidly advanced in commercial prosperity. Vessels fitted out at other Atlantic ports, trading with Europe and Asia, instead of carrying cargoes to their own ports, as they had done, now found their interest in sending them to New York, as the great mart of American commerce. The duties on imports paid in New York, in 1827, were about 67 per cent, and in 1833, about 82 per cent of the total paid in the United States ; showing that, in the latter year, four-fifths of the whole imports of the Union came to this port.

This sudden influence on the general commerce of the country was not viewed with indifference by the cities that felt the unfavorable influence on their relative importance in trade. The city of Philadelphia made vigorous efforts to induce the State of Pennsylvania to go forward in the construction of canals, that would develop the resources of their own State, and secure, as far as possible, a participation in the western trade. The State of Pennsylvania, together with private corporations, proceeded for several years, with great, if not with well-directed energy, in the construction of works to improve their means of intercommunication.

At that time, canals were regarded as the best artificial means of transportation. But neither Pennsylvania, nor any other State, enjoyed such advantages as New York, for forming an easy, navigable channel, to connect the Atlantic tide with the western lakes. The high and dry ridges of the Alleghanies, which required to be crossed in other States, before they reached the line of the New York canal, diminished into broad plains, of moderate elevation, admitting a canal of light lockage, with an abundant supply of water at command. But, nothing daunted by the formidable obstacles they had to encounter, Pennsylvania proceeded westward, making canals where the country would permit, and connecting them by railroad, over ridges where the elevation did not allow of canals. In this way, she has formed a mixed system of artificial communication between Philadelphia and Pittsburgh. Though this has greatly improved the facilities of Philadelphia in communicating with the interior and westward, it has not proved a very formidable means of diverting trade from New York. The trade of Philadelphia has improved ; but the trade of the western lakes has so rapidly increased, and centering mostly in New York, the latter city has been able to maintain an advancing prosperity.

So far as regards water communication with the western lakes, and through them for the western trade, New York has no serious rival except New Orleans. The latter city, as she has done, will, no doubt, continue to take a large share. Her navigation, though at times very good, is, to a great extent, fluctuating, and her climate unfavorable. The completion of the enlargement of the Erie Canal, by which it will be adapted to an easy and cheap navigation by vessels of one hundred and fifty tons, that will proceed directly from the lakes to New York, will so enlarge its capacity, and cheapen transportation, that the economy in favor of New York, will carry the point of divergence where trade will divide between New York and New Orleans, far down the main tributaries, and, at some points,

reach the Mississippi river. For salubrity of climate, and the means of cheap and comfortable living, few large cities equal New York.

Notwithstanding the superior position of New York, it cannot be doubted that other Atlantic cities have been gaining in their general commerce. This has resulted from improvement in their connection with the interior, and their increase of capital. By the former, they have enlarged their market; and by the latter, have been able to open a direct trade with foreign countries; and, consequently, are less dependent on New York for imports.

New York has relied on her canals; and they have proved a noble reliance for both city and State. Under the powerful influence this has given to her growth and prosperity, and in view of the strength and superiority of her position in this respect, it is not surprising she has looked with great indifference to the influence of other kinds of communication. The noble Hudson and the grand canal have been the pride of the city and the State. But a new element of civilization has been developed; "and, however sternly we may set ourselves against it, the world around us see the railway as 'an epoch' in the affairs of mankind."

It does not appear that railroads have superseded good water communication, or that the tonnage or revenues of canals have, in general, been reduced by railway improvements, nor do we believe that heavy freight, of a character not to be materially affected by a slow transit, can be transported on a railroad as cheap as by a good water communication. In corroboration of this, it appears that in England and Belgium, where railways have been carried to a great extent, the canals still transport, in general, the great mass of heavy freight during the season of navigation. There are, notwithstanding, advantages so important to social and commercial intercourse, possessed by the railway system, that no commercial city in this latitude can afford to do without them, or fail to feel the influence they will produce, as competitors with water conveyance. At all times, the railway is superior in the transit of whatever requires expedition. In this respect, no water conveyance can equal it. "*It is not arrested by drought, nor suspended by frost.*" It can traverse high districts where no water conveyance can be made, and thus new routes open competition with it, and materially divert trade, that for water conveyance, had sought a different market. If not as cheap for heavy goods, it is superior in the uniformity of its action; for, while frost closes navigation from one-quarter to one-third of the year, the railway continues to afford, throughout the year, the means of cheap and rapid communication.

So long as we depend on water for commercial intercourse with the interior, the winter must be a season of suspension. This is very much against the interest of the agricultural portion of the community, who have little to occupy them on their farms at this season, and will readily embrace the opportunity that may be opened by railroads, to improve it, by sending their productions to market. If the merchants or manufacturers can replenish their stock during the winter, they will save capital, by laying in less in the autumn; and the latter will especially improve the facility offered by a railroad, to send their productions to market as fast as they are prepared. In corroboration of this position, it is only necessary to call attention to the winter business of the *Western Railroad*, extending from Albany (on the way to Boston) one hundred and fifty-six miles, to Worcester. For the months of January, February, March, and Decem-

ber, the receipts were, in 1842, \$115,363 ; 1843, \$126,413 ; 1844, \$180,000 ; 1845, \$212,484 ; the first three months of 1846, at the rate of \$265,000 for the winter months of the year, on the supposition that the last month will have the same ratio of increase as the first three months.

From this, it appears the winter business of the road has more than doubled in four years. It is obvious, however, the citizens of New York do not generally suppose that railroads can produce an influence that will materially benefit or injure their commercial prosperity. To those who have carefully observed the progress of the railroad enterprise, this may seem strange ; but the mystery of this apathy will be solved, when it is considered that, owing to the great natural advantages of her position, aided as this has been by the enterprise of the State, in opening canals to the western and northern lakes, her growth and prosperity has given a great field to her enterprise, in grading and paving streets, and building ships, houses, and stores, to accommodate the demands of her rapidly increasing trade. Thus far, she has hardly had occasion or time to consider, whether any new development of the means of communication could affect her ; and this is believed to be the cause why she has not given serious attention to this subject.

The railway enterprise, as a means of general communication, is scarcely twenty years old ; and already its extension and results have outstripped the anticipations of its ablest advocates. On all sides, from scientific journals, and from the newspapers of the day, we meet accounts of the increasing traffic on railways. On several of the railroads leading from Boston, the business of last year was from three and a half to six times greater in aggregate receipts, and from seven to nine times in number of passengers, than originally estimated by the projectors. The Western Railroad in Massachusetts, before referred to, when in course of construction, was regarded by intelligent and sagacious men, as a most forlorn and unpromising enterprise ; but it has been regularly increasing in business since 1842, (the first full year of its operation,) at the rate of about 20 per cent per annum.

For substantial structure, and amount of investment, Massachusetts has taken a decided lead in the railroad enterprise ; and what was, by many, regarded as a doubtful experiment, has proved a good investment of capital. It appears from the census of last year, that the increase of property in Boston, from 1840 to 1845, over that of the previous five years, was nearly equal to the total cost of the railroads of Massachusetts, or about nineteen millions of dollars. From the same source, it appears the import duties paid on goods by the Cunard line of steamers, in 1840, was less than \$350 per voyage, or, for the eight voyages of that year, less than \$2,800 ; and the same for 1845, was \$51,000 per voyage, or, for the twenty voyages of the year, \$1,020,000. All the industrial interests of the State have been invigorated, and general prosperity promoted. The proceeds of her extensive fisheries and manufactures are carried, with the utmost facility, in every direction, to meet the wants of consumers ; and form the basis of a greatly increasing general commerce. The total number of passengers carried on the roads that diverge from Boston, in 1845, was nearly 2,400,000, or double the highest estimate for the trade of the same time by steamboats on the Hudson River, or nearly three times the total population of Massachusetts. Surely the State of Massachusetts,

and especially the city of Boston, in their progress, have occasion to regard the railway enterprise as an epoch.

In the State of Georgia, five hundred and eighty-two* miles of railway have been constructed, but at less than half the expense of the Massachusetts railroads. In the western part of our own State, upwards of three hundred miles of railroad have been constructed, and though of an indifferent character, and under legal restrictions as to business, have proved profitable investments, and highly beneficial to social and commercial intercourse.

In England, though railways have been constructed at great expense, in 1845 there were in that country 2,118 miles in operation. The receipts per mile of railroad, taking the average of all the roads in the kingdom, was, in—

1843,.....	£2,521, equal to \$12,000
1844,.....	2,655 " 12,744
1845,.....	2,931 " 14,068

Showing the increase of 1845 over 1843, to be 16 per cent. The total receipts for the three years were \$76,000,000, of which 66½ per cent was from passengers. The total number of passengers carried, and miles of road in operation, was, in—

	Miles of road.	Passengers.
1842,.....	1,717	21,358,445
1843,.....	1,798	25,572,525
1844,.....	1,912	30,363,025

That for every 100 miles of road, was equal, in—

1842.	1843.	1844.
Passengers.	Passengers.	Passengers.
1,243,500	1,421,800	1,587,400

Or the increase of passengers, per mile, was in 1844 over 1842, equal to 27 per cent.

The receipts on the Great Western Railway in England, for the first six months of 1846, over the corresponding period in 1845, were £63,132, or at the rate of \$611,000 per annum.

In Belgium, France, and Germany, the railway enterprise is progressing with great rapidity, working a social as well as commercial revolution.

Further statistics might be presented from this and other countries, to illustrate the progress of the railroad enterprise ; but the limits of this article will not permit, and it can hardly be necessary. The instances of unsuccessful railroads are remarkably few, and, it is believed, in most cases are confined to works that have been undertaken with insufficient means, carried forward with inadequate skill, or conducted to subserve some purpose of speculation, other than that of a legitimate railroad business.

The statistics above given, show conclusively, that the railway is superior to all other modes for transporting passengers ; that it maintains a close competition with water conveyance, in transporting freight ; and, as it is "not suspended by drought, nor arrested by frost," it has the advantage of an uninterrupted communication throughout the year.

* Boston Post, September 15th, 1846.

In the great struggle that is making by other cities to reach the western trade, can New York afford to remain indifferent to the subject of railways ? Without their aid, her movements must be more tardy in the summer, and suspended during the winter. The latter will become more important as railroads are extended.

Philadelphia feels the insufficiency of her present mixed system, and is contemplating a railroad, continuous from that city to Cleveland, on Lake Erie, a distance of four hundred and seventy miles, having, it is reported, no grade exceeding forty-five feet per mile. This is about the same distance as from New York to Buffalo ; and when that road is made, it will open to Philadelphia directly, a large and fertile portion of Ohio, and make connection at the best position that is practicable, with Lake Erie. For at least eight months of the year, such a road would command most of the travel, and for five or six months, the whole business that would centre on Lake Erie at Cleveland. From Cleveland, railroads will eventually be extended to Indiana, Michigan, and Illinois, which must produce a great influence on the western trade. With the exception of three or four summer months, the lake is liable to be disturbed by severe storms, which will induce great numbers of passengers, and more or less of freight, to take the railroad, even while the lake is open ; and, for five months, the storms and ice on the lake will send the whole trade over the railroad. In such event, and nothing to divert its influence, what would be the influence on New York ? And we may inquire with solicitude, what can be done to maintain the commercial ascendancy of New York ? Perhaps our present relative position cannot be maintained. The railway system tends to diffuse commercial advantages far more than water communication, which is, necessarily, more restricted in its capabilities.

It is not intended to undervalue good water communication, nor to assume the position that the advantages New York possesses in this respect, will not sustain her as an important commercial city ; but that, while she has the cheap and slow-moving barge in its season, she ought also to have the means of expeditious transit with the interior, for such freight and passengers as will readily pay the small additional charge that may be necessary at such time ; and, when navigation is arrested by frost, the power of uninterrupted communication for all freight and passengers, that her trade may not be suspended when *rival cities enjoy continual commercial action*. It must be evident to all who watch the movements of the times, that without the aid of railroads, New York must lose in her relative superiority, as the great centre of American commerce.

It may be inquired, when can railroads be made to benefit New York ? This question we will endeavor to answer in a general way.

The New York and Erie Railroad project has, for several years, been struggling for progress, and though it has generally been regarded with favor by citizens of New York, has at times appeared to be hardly able to maintain the prospect of competition within any moderate period of time ; but has now been so much invigorated, that strong hopes are entertained of its early accomplishment. This work will develop the resources of an extensive district of country, now very much secluded, and bear its commerce directly to New York. It will serve a valuable purpose as a competitor for the western trade.

The New York and Harlem Railroad, when it shall be extended to Dover, in Dutchess county, and connected with the Housatonic Railroad, will

greatly facilitate communication between New York, and the western part of Connecticut and Massachusetts, and the southern and easterly portion of Vermont. The New York and New Haven Railroad, would further improve the connection with the East.

The extension and improvement of several railroads in New Jersey, particularly those that have a westerly direction from New York, will further enhance the trade and commerce of the city.

The railroads that form the line from Albany and Troy to Buffalo, require to be improved, and all restrictions taken from their use. When put in proper condition, the passage from Albany to Buffalo may easily be made in twelve hours, and freight carried at as cheap a rate as on any other route in this country of the same length. This line of roads, passing along the route of the Erie Canal, has in general very easy grades, and a large proportion of straight line, circumstances highly favorable for cheap and rapid transit. A road is projected to run from opposite Buffalo, in Canada, to opposite Detroit, and the route is reported as highly favorable. From Detroit, the Central Railroad across the State of Michigan to St. Josephs, near the south end of Lake Michigan, is nearly completed, and is to be immediately put in first-rate condition. With the exception of two short ferries, this will make a continuous line from Albany of about 800 miles. The time cannot be considered distant when a railroad will run from Buffalo, along the whole American shore of Lake Erie, and thence onward to the Mississippi. The lake shore will, no doubt, afford an easy grade and favorable line. The trade between the lake towns will soon be sufficient to sustain such a road. From this Albany and Buffalo line, a branch road from Rome, Oneida county, to Cape Vincent, at the foot of Lake Ontario, may easily be connected with Kingston, by which an uninterrupted communication would be made, with a large and fertile portion of Canada. The favorable commercial arrangements that now exist between the two countries, give an important aspect to this project; but independent of this, it will greatly develop the resources of that portion of this State, through which it will pass.

From Albany and Troy, northward to Lake Champlain, is an important route for a railroad. It would pass along the vast water-power of the upper Hudson and its tributaries, that would be called into action by the facilities it would furnish, and greatly increase the population, wealth and trade of that district.

The railroads that centre about Albany and Troy, require a connection by railroad with New York. A hasty glance at this focus of northern and western trade, is sufficient to show the great importance of this connection. It is highly fortunate to the city and State of New York, that the valley of the Hudson affords a route well adapted to this object;—a good line and easy grades, well adapted to a railroad of cheap and rapid transit, and may be constructed at reasonable cost. This road should be a first-rate structure, over which passengers could be conveyed with safety and comfort, from New York to Albany, in four or five hours, and on which freight could be transported at the cheapest rate. With these improvements a passenger from New York would be able to reach Buffalo in sixteen to eighteen hours, and Kingston in Canada in less time, say fourteen to sixteen hours.

Railroads are important, as a means of developing the resources and encouraging the enterprise and industry of all parts of our own State, and those of other States bordering on us, and whose trade will naturally travel

to New York. Manufacturing will come to the aid of agricultural industry, latent sources of wealth and trade be brought into active operation, and those now affording a scanty return will be made vigorous and highly productive. In addition to this, New York has a great interest in securing the best practicable facilities for communicating with Lake Erie. Let the railroads proposed be made in a judicious and substantial manner, and with the superior water communication now enjoyed, and in course of improvement, and this city will possess such a means of cheap, rapid and uninterrupted transit of persons and goods, that will secure to her the ascendancy in the commerce of this continent. Her natural situation and advantages, when properly improved, give her this position.

The question now arises, will the proposed railroads afford a remunerating profit for the outlay they will require? Experience is the best guide for this question. In other districts, less favorable for their construction, and less promising in their business, they have been made entirely successful; and if the same skill and fidelity is devoted to these, there can be no doubt of equal success. Let us take for example those railroads that have been conducted with a single eye to their legitimate business, and not those that have been managed for land and stock speculation. To those who have been accustomed to travel on, and see the operation of business on well conducted railroads, no argument is necessary to convince them of their superiority for every purpose of rapid or uninterrupted transit, and especially for the ease, safety and rapidity in the transit of passengers, over every other mode of conveyance.

It is not the design of this paper to urge the particular claims of any railroad project. The system is viewed as one that mocks the age. Its progress has startled the most cautious. Its developments are revolutionizing the social and commercial affairs of mankind. No commercial city can fail to feel its influence. Peculiar circumstances may protract, and modify for a time, but cannot avert it; for benefit or injury, the result is inevitable. As elsewhere, the system will go forward here, and nowhere is it more important in the results that will be secured. The time is not distant, when in New York as much anxiety will be felt for the completion of the lines, as is now felt in other cities and districts, for similar works. The consideration of the subject is commended to all who take an interest in the growth and prosperity of the city, and the promotion of the social and commercial intercourse and prosperity of the State at large.

Art. IV.—MORALS OF TRADE.

WHAT IS MERCANTILE CHARITY? CHRISTIAN CHARITY?

WORLDLY wisdom and Christian duty run parallel with each other; or rather, they are the same thing. What is interest is duty. We should see this, could we look deep enough into affairs. That which is called worldly wisdom, an appearance of sagacity and skill which ends in downfall; a pretence and show of acuteness, which becomes dull and blunt when put to use, is so named to distinguish it from real wisdom. This worldly wisdom is no wisdom at all. It is folly dressed in sober garments; a wolf in sheep's clothing; a bright razor without temper or stuff in it; a false light hung out by those wreckers, the flesh and the devil.

But that course of action which we find to be best by experience, those views and principles which the world has endorsed as genuine paper, that is wisdom. Those old bank-notes, worn and soiled, that have known service, and smell of circulation, they may be homely and dark, but they bring the gold from the vault. Such wisdom we shall find to be one with Christian duty.

But let us illustrate our statement by bringing forward some practical precept of Christianity, and comparing it with the true and the false wisdom. Let us discuss the question, What is mercantile charity? We shall find, in Mark's gospel, an appropriate answer by Christ to this inquiry. The young man, who came so eagerly to inquire what he should do to inherit eternal life, was told "to sell whatsoever he had, and give to the poor, and he should have treasure in Heaven."

There are frequent allusions made in the newspapers, and in private circles, in "Mendon meetings" and radical associations, to our richest merchants, as guilty of wrong, because they continue to amass property. "Let them retire," say some, "and give place to the rising generation; they have enough, let them give up business;" as if what is a fortune was limited or defined by statute. Others cry out for a division of property, and question the religious principle of those who hold large fortunes. "There is something wrong," they say; "there is disease in the social state, it must be made over anew. These inequalities in condition are a fruitful source of mischief." Does it ever occur to these complainers, we ask, that the fault is in those who are too lazy to work? that the fault is in those who do not acquire, not in those who do; that it is better they should come *up* than that others should come *down*?

We do not understand our Saviour to say to the young man who was inquiring the way to heaven, that he must sell *all* his possessions, and give *all* the proceeds to the poor; but he tells him to sell whatsoever he had; to sell something; to realize some money, and give to the poor. If he should sell all his property, and give all to the poor, he would be poor himself, and some one else must needs sell his property, and give to him; and he again go over the same round of giving. It would seem that a moment's reflection would show that no such meaning could be intended. The instruction is a general instruction to benevolence and charity, and not a specific way of disposing of his property.

But what now? What is the Christian course for us? To become Christians must you give up your plans of life, close your business, and turn to reading the Bible, and attending religious meetings? Not so; this would put a speedy stop to all progress and improvement. He who is the best merchant is the best Christian. He who is the best farmer is the best Christian. He who is the best anything, is the best Christian. We mean to say that he who lives the best life, who performs all his work and labor, and study, from the highest motives, is the best man and the best Christian. How impossible would it be for any man, whatever his natural talents might be, to be a good workman in any pursuit, who was under the government of his passions. He might often do extremely well, but *now* there is a great mistake, an error, a failure, which blasts his reputation as a workman, and destroys confidence. We are not speaking of what a man can do, but of what he will do—he likely to do. When we say the best farmer is the best Christian, we mean that he only can be relied upon, always to act judiciously and calmly, to consult justice, and honesty,

and fair dealing, who is a good man—a man of principle. We mean that the highest success in any department of human action is dependent upon the principles of the gospel. We mean that the fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom.

But the question meets us every day, what is duty? We all know of want and distress we might help, if we chose to make the necessary sacrifice. We know of families in cities that have hardly enough to eat from day to day, certainly who have nothing ahead. Is it my duty to sell all my superfluous clothing, to take the carpets from my floors, and sell them to give to these poor people? This brings the question right before us. There are persons who contend that we should make this sacrifice. We say we should not. But if we may not do this, what must we do? What is duty for you and me—for Christians? What is Christian charity? mercantile charity?

Suppose the case of the merchant. He now is charitable, hospitable, a supporter of the good institutions of our time. He supports his part of the various calls upon the charity and liberality of the public. He is a good citizen. Everybody allows this; but he lives elegantly; there are many superfluities about him, things he could do without. He has furniture he rarely uses, clothes he rarely or never wears, pictures whose rich coloring only occasionally attracts his eye. He has horses and carriages, pleasure-grounds, and a park of deer; he indulges in expensive tastes; he visits the great curiosities of nature in his own country and abroad. All this is expensive, and costs money. But let us add the character that belongs to many a merchant of our time. He is a good husband and father; he is domestic, social, and kind; he is public spirited and liberal; his house is like the palace of a prince, and his manners are refined and elegant as any courtier's; he passes by people poorly clad every day; he sees hungry and ragged children in the street every day. Will you, can you, ask this man to sell his house and lands, and clothe these poorly-clad people, and these ragged children, and feed them too?

He gives now to many objects; but you ask that he give more. He is now benevolent; but you insist that he reduce his manner of living to a common level, and refuse to enjoy anything in which all others do not share. Now suppose that he do this from a sense of duty;—this man we have brought forward as an instance, does give up his property and luxuries, and distributes to the poor. It works well for a month, or a year. There is abundance now where there was want; and it seems that a new order of things had been brought about. But, at the end of a month, or a year, this benevolence is exhausted; the means he distributed are used up. He himself is poor. The great objects to which he formerly gave support now languish; the school, the church, public improvements, the hospital, the asylum. The wealth that helped to support them is gone. It has been spread over a large surface where it was felt but a short time. Now—now we say the condition of the poor is worse than ever. They have spent their principal, and there is no interest now that can accrue. The heart of the benevolent man is as warm as ever, but he no longer has the means to second his good intentions. He is now poor himself, and there is none to help him.

The case we have supposed, to illustrate what must be the meaning of our Saviour in his conversation with the young man, may be shown by a physical comparison. Suppose this wealth, which, many say, it is unchris-

tian for any man to hoard, while there is want and hunger about him—suppose this wealth to be a reservoir of water which furnishes supply to a neighborhood. There is enough, in ordinary cases, to supply the common want. But a drought occurs; the land is parched. It is proposed to take the water of the reservoir, and spread it over the land. It is done. The effect is hardly perceived, and now there is no water left to supply the domestic purposes of life. It has all been exhausted in this one act of extraordinary benevolence, and the people die of thirst. Thus would it be, were the wealth which now supports our institutions scattered and divided. And this is no impossible supposition. There are cities supplied by cisterns of water caught from the clouds, where are no wells of water, like Madrid. Suppose here that the water kept for that city should, in a time of drought, be distributed over the country; would it be well or ill for the people? Now let the cisterns of water stand for the men of wealth in the community, and it will, at once, be seen that they too supply a want which it is as essential to supply as that a city be furnished with water. And again there is another consideration which will prevent this equal distribution of property by the disciple of Christ. It requires money to make money. Capital is indispensable to most kinds of business, especially that done upon a large scale. True benevolence looks far ahead. It is not content to give to-day, but contrives how to be generous in the future.

Shall the merchant, then, take from his capital, and feed the hungry and clothe the naked? Is it not better that he employ his talents in so using his wealth that a constant stream of bounty flows from his hand, to bless thousands, year after year? He is God's steward. He must guard the means entrusted to him from waste and misuse. Will you ask the farmer to sell his farm and distribute to the poor, and thus cut off all chance of future benevolence? Shall the mechanic sell his tools, the means by which he works, and makes enough to supply his own wants, and also give something to the wants of others? These are all parallel cases. We know that no man will do either of these acts; but we ask the question to discover why he will not do them; that we may feel we are obeying the voice of God, and are not meanly selfish; that we are yielding to the plainest dictates of common sense, and consulting the permanent good of the poor and distressed, by taking care of our property, and husbanding our resources. No more shall the merchant distribute his capital, the farmer his farm, the mechanic his tools, than shall the impatient hand of thirst, with axe and spade, dig up the sources of the fountain, and lay bare and open to the sun those crevices in the rock, whence now flow out in a constant and small stream, the sparkling water that supplies the common want. But if you break up the hill and lay it open to the sun, the heat dries up the moisture, and the air holds it in a state of solution. It is no longer visible. It is so widely diffused, that nobody feels it.

Benevolence must be considerate; regard the future as well as the present. The true object of giving is to help for the future as well as the present. The mere act of giving is not benevolence. It is charity, sometimes, to withhold giving. You may do the greatest injury, sometimes, by your careless generosity. We know very well that if a man is open-handed, and gives to everybody, he will be praised and flattered. But still we say such a person may do injury by his very largeness of heart. It is easier, too, often, to give than to examine into the claims of the asker. Many give to get rid of trouble; a small sum removes the object from their

sight, while the money bestowed may only plunge the wretched man deeper in difficulty and want, by relieving and not helping. Giving without thought, may often encourage idleness in those who ought to engage in honest labor. If one escapes too easily from difficulties in which his own follies have plunged him, he will be less likely to avoid this fault of his character in future. God has ordered that the way of the transgressor should be hard, and it is often a nice matter to decide when to give without coming between the fault, and that righteous retribution, which is the mercy of heaven to save from further sin.

Let us not say a word to limit or narrow down charitable feelings. Let us not offer excuses for selfishness and meanness; and yet it is important to inquire and settle what is Christian duty towards those who solicit our aid. We fear there is less thought upon this subject than there ought to be. When you visit the city, as you walk the streets, towards evening, at almost every square, you will be met by quite young children, who, in piteous tones, ask of you a few cents to buy bread. If you turn and offer them bread from the shop near where you may be, they refuse it. They want money. We fear often they are sent out by intemperate parents to glean a few small coins, that they may be expended in intemperance and excess. It is hard to turn a deaf ear to the petition of children; but is it not duty to resist these questionable appeals. If one had time, it would be well to offer to go with them to their homes, and inquire into their case. Such offers are, generally, refused; sometimes it may be through shame, and fear of exposing the wretchedness of their abode; but more often refused from fear of their parents, who dread that their vile objects in sending their children forth should be exposed.

But in the country we often have difficult questions of charity to decide. There is a class of applicants for charity, quite numerous, who go about with a written tale of shipwreck and disaster, and who ask aid to bring their families from Europe to these hospitable shores. What will you do with them? What is Christian duty now? We think it is duty to feed any one who is hungry, to clothe any one who is naked, when we have it in our power; but we do not believe it is duty to give money for distant objects, and thus to encourage in our own land a class of travelling beggars, who may finally help to people our jails and prisons. To give a man money to encourage him in a system of deception, is not, surely, Christian alms-giving.

We think we may avoid much difficulty, and also be at peace in our consciences, by taking care to support properly all those institutions established in our time and by our fathers, for the relief of indigence, and the encouragement of industry. We do the best service to the poor, indirectly, by looking after the common school; by seeing that all children are properly educated, their faculties trained to enable them to help themselves. This is to avoid the causes of poverty. But there will be cases, after all, that ask our aid. The farm schools and the poor's farm are among the most excellent improvements of our time. They offer no encouragement to idleness; their doors are open to all the needy.

And now, to come back to our immediate topic of inquiry, how far are we to give up luxuries we have earned, to help those who have neglected to help themselves? it seems to us a narrow view to suppose any such course required of us. We have attempted to show that wealth is given to men that they may be stewards of large bounties. It would seem, by

the course of events, that Providence prospers men in trade and commerce, and useful arts, that colleges may be founded, and hospitals endowed. It would seem that in somebody's hands must be funds for such purposes. God's stewards have not failed in our day. The rich are the benevolent, *and to be poor is to have friends*. From the words of our Saviour we do not see any precept inculcated but a general lesson of benevolence; and no Christian duty seems to demand of any man to throw his possessions into the common stock. No duty demands it, because it destroys his usefulness, and fetters the hand of bounty.

J. N. B.

Art. V.—ROBERT FULTON'S FIRST VOYAGE.

WHATEVER relates to the introduction into use of that power which has become the mighty muscle of the world, moving its entire machinery, must be of the deepest importance. The voyage from New York to Albany, of the first steamer, opened the door to a *progress* for the human race, equivalent, at one bound, to the march of ages. A history of that voyage, we care not how minute the detail, must be of thrilling interest. It was an experiment, in the success or failure of which, the comfort and prosperity of a great fraction of mankind were interested.

We have recently seen, in the Chicago Journal, an article by John Q. Wilson, Esq., of Albany, who was himself a passenger with Fulton in the first experimental voyage, a minute observer of all its incidents, and an intelligent witness of all the facts attending that era in the destinies of our race. It is appropriately published in a paper printed at Chicago, a place which, but for the annihilation of distance, which steam has achieved, would, in all probability, have had no existence.

A short synopsis of the legislative proceedings relating to steam navigation, precedes the personal reminiscences of the voyage.

As early as the year 1787, the legislature of New York passed an act for granting and securing to John Fitch, the sole right and advantage of making and employing, for fourteen years, the steamboat by him invented.

In 1798, that act was repealed, and similar privileges extended to Robert R. Livingston, (Chancellor of the State,) provided that he should, within twelve months, give such proof as should satisfy the Governor, Lieut. Governor, and Surveyor-General, or a majority of them, of his having built a boat of at least twenty tons capacity, which should be propelled by steam, and the mean of whose progress through the water, with and against the ordinary current of the Hudson River, taken together, should not be less than four miles an hour, in which event he should have the exclusive privilege for the term of twenty years; but that he should at no time omit, for the space of one year, to have a boat of such construction plying between the cities of New York and Albany.

In 1803 the preceding act was extended to Robert R. Livingston and Robert Fulton, for twenty years from the fifth of April of that year, and time for giving the necessary proof required by the act of 1798, was extended to two years. At the time these acts were passed, and particularly the last one, the privileges were considered about as valuable as if the legislature should now grant the exclusive right of making and using a machine to fly through the air. The steamboat project was then familiarly denomi-

nated "*the Chancellor's hobby*." The legislature were willing to gratify the Chancellor's whim, without any expectation of public or private benefit.

It would seem from this that Fitch preceded Fulton; but the latter made up by triumphant success for any delinquency in time. The rate of speed designated as the ordeal of legislative power, seems ludicrous enough now, when four *and* twenty miles the hour is reached.

Judge Wilson resided in the city of New York when Fulton was building his boat, and frequently saw her on the stocks. She was a queer looking craft, and excited much attention, and not a little ridicule. When she was launched, and the steam-engine placed in her, that also was looked upon of a piece with the boat built to float it. A few had seen one at work raising the Manhattan water into the reservoir back of the almshouse; but to the people at large, the whole thing was a hidden mystery. Curiosity was greatly excited. When it was announced in the New York papers that the boat would start from the foot of Cortlandt-street, at six and a half o'clock on Friday morning, the fourth of September, and take passengers to Albany, there was a broad smile on every face, as the inquiry was made, if any one would be fool enough to go? A friend of the writer, hearing that he intended to venture, accosted him in the street, "John, will thee risk thy life in such a concern? I tell thee she is the most *fearful wild fowl* living, and thy father ought to restrain thee." When Friday morning came, the wharves, piers, house-tops, and every "*coigne of vantage*" from which a sight could be obtained, were filled with spectators.

There were twelve berths, and every one was taken through to Albany. The fare was seven dollars. All the machinery was uncovered and exposed to view. The periphery of the balance wheels, of cast iron, some four or more inches square, ran just clear of the water. There were no outside guards; the water and balance wheels being supported by their respective shafts, which projected over the sides of the boat. The forward part was covered by a deck, which afforded shelter to the hands. The after part was fitted up, in a rough manner, for passengers. The entrance into the cabin was from the stern, in front of the steersman, who worked a tiller as in an ordinary sloop. Black smoke issued from the chimney, steam hissed from every ill-fitted valve and crevice of the engine. Fulton himself was there. His remarkably clear and sharp voice was heard above the hum of the multitude and the noise of the engine; his step was confident and decided; he heeded not the fearfulness, doubts, or sarcasms of those by whom he was surrounded. The whole scene combined, had in it an individuality and an interest which comes but once, and is remembered for ever.

When everything was ready, the engine was set in motion, and the boat moved steadily but slowly from the wharf; as she turned up the river and was fairly under weigh, there arose such a huzza as ten thousand throats never gave before. The passengers returned the cheer, but Fulton stood upon the deck, his eye flashing with an unusual brilliancy, as he surveyed the crowd. He felt that the magic wand of success was waving over him, and he was silent.

When coming up Haverstraw Bay, a man in a skiff lay waiting for us. His appearance indicated a miller; the paddle wheels had very naturally attracted his attention; he asked permission to come on board. Fulton ordered a line to be thrown to him, and he was drawn alongside; he said

he "did not know about a mill going up stream, and came to inquire about it." One of the passengers, an Irishman, seeing through the simple-minded miller at a glance, became his *cicerone*; showed him all the machinery, and the contrivances by which one wheel could be thrown out of gear when the mill was required to come about. After finishing the examination, said he, "That will do; now show me the mill-stones." "Oh!" said the other, "that is a secret which the *master*," pointing to Fulton, "has not told us yet; but when we come back from Albany with a load of corn, then, if you come on board, you'll see the meal fly." Dennis kept his countenance, and the miller left.

As we passed West Point, the whole garrison was out, and cheered as we passed. At Newburgh it seemed as if all Orange county was collected there; the whole side-hill city seemed animated with life. Every sail-boat and water-craft was out; the ferry-boat from Fishkill was filled with ladies. Fulton was engaged in seeing a passenger landed, and did not observe the boat until she bore up nearly alongside. The flapping of a sail arrested his attention, and, as he turned, the waving of so many handkerchiefs, and the smiles of bright and happy faces, struck him with surprise; he raised his hat, and exclaimed, "That is the finest sight we have seen yet."

Fulton, in his letter to Barlow, (22d August, 1807,) adds to these reminiscences: "My steamboat voyage to Albany, and back, has turned out rather more favorable than I had calculated. The distance to Albany is one hundred and fifty miles. I ran up in thirty-two hours, and down in thirty hours. The latter is just five miles an hour. I had a light breeze against me the whole way going and coming, so that no use was made of my sails, and this voyage has been performed wholly by the power of the steam-engine. I overtook many sloops and schooners beating to the windward, and passed them as if they had been at anchor.

"The power of propelling boats by steam is now fully proved. The morning I left New York, there were not, perhaps, thirty persons in the city who believed that the boat would ever move one mile an hour, or be of the least utility; and while we were putting off from the wharf, which was crowded with spectators, I heard a number of sarcastic remarks."

It is well known that, at the end of the voyage, a certificate of its full success was given, which we republish in connection with the above. Judge Wilson is now the only survivor of those who joined in that certificate; the last one, we believe, now living, who was on board that boat, whose journey was of more importance to the Union than any other since the days of Columbus:—

"On Friday morning, at eighteen minutes before seven o'clock, the North River boat left New York, landed one passenger at Tarrytown, (twenty-five miles,) arrived at Newburgh (sixty-three miles) at four o'clock in the afternoon, landed one passenger there, arrived at Clermont, (one hundred miles,) where two passengers, one of whom was Mr. Fulton, were landed, at fifteen minutes before two o'clock in the morning, and arrived at Albany at twenty-seven minutes past eleven o'clock, making the time twenty-eight hours and three-quarters, distance one hundred and fifty miles.

"The wind was favorable, but light, from Verplanck's Point to Wappinger's Creek (forty miles;) the remainder of the way it was ahead, or there was a dead calm.

"The subscribers, passengers on board of this boat, on her first pas-

sage as a packet, think it but justice to state that the accommodations and conveniences on board exceeded their most sanguine expectations.

"Selah Strong, G. H. Van Wagenen, Thomas Wallace, John Q. Wilson, John P. Anthony, Dennis H. Doyle, George Wetmore, William S. Hick, J. Bowman, J. Crane, James Braiden, Stephen N. Rowan.

"Albany, September 5th, 1807."

We cannot forbear two other extracts from Fulton's letter; the first is a wonderful prophecy, long since realized beyond the highest hopes of him who made it; the other is another proof how seldom men know the real value of their own acts—at least, really great men.

"It will give a quick and cheap conveyance to merchandise on the Mississippi, Missouri, and other great rivers, which are now laying open their treasures to the enterprise of our countrymen."

"However, I will not admit that it is half so important as the torpedo system of defence and attack."

The "torpedo system" could not have covered the land with prosperity, and made an empire of the West, as the steamboat has done. Every hour is adding confirmation to Fulton's prophecy of the results of his boat, as an abiding, practical benefit, and blessing to mankind; while the torpedo would be forgotten but for being associated with his name.

We hope that Judge Wilson will furnish, if in his power, other details of this most interesting occasion.

ART. VI.—THE LAW OF DEBTOR AND CREDITOR IN LOUISIANA.*

NUMBER II.

THE prescription of the civil law, (answering to the common law statutes of limitation) is an interesting branch of the jurisprudence of Louisiana, and important in its operation upon the relation of debtor and creditor.

The statutes providing for, and regulating the limitation of actions, have been justly denominated "statutes of repose." Provisions of a like nature have found their way into the systems of jurisprudence of every civilized community. They have their origin in that wise policy which sees the well-being and prosperity of a community in the suppression of litigation, and the quieting of the titles to property; and are adopted to meet and arrest the litigious spirit in man, in the just apprehension that "lest while men are mortal, lawsuits should be immortal."

They have been said to rest upon the legal presumption—arising from the lapse of time during which a debt or property has been unclaimed from the debtor or possessor by the creditor or lawful owner—that the debt has been paid, but the evidence of payment has been lost; that the possessor of property once had a good and sufficient grant, but that his title has been destroyed.

The interposition of these provisions, both under the civil and the common law, as a bar to a suit for the possession of property or the recovery of a debt, is no longer regarded by the courts as an odious defence, to be discouraged by a strict construction against the defendant; but the law is administered in the spirit of that theory of its origin, so beautifully ex-

* For the first article on the same subject, see *Merchants' Magazine* for July, 1846, (Vol. XV., No. I., p. 70.)

pressed by one of the ablest and most eloquent lawyers of our age: "Time is represented as holding a scythe in one hand, and an hour-glass in the other. With the former he is forever destroying our evidences, and mowing down the monuments of our possessions. But the wisdom of the lawgiver has declared, that with the latter, he shall be continually meting out the durations of time at which those evidences and those muniments shall no longer be necessary."

By the articles of the civil code of Louisiana, **PRESCRIPTION** is declared to be of two kinds: 1st. That by which property is acquired; and 2d. That by which debts are discharged. First, with regard to the acquisition of property.

The duration of time of its possession to bar its recovery by the legal owner, depends—

1st. Upon the nature of the property.

2d. Upon the character, if any, of the titles under which the possessor holds or claims; and—

3d. The presence or absence from the country of the legal owner.

If the property be immovable, its possessor may plead prescription as a bar to the claim of the real owner, after the lapse of either *ten*, *twenty*, or *thirty* years of possession, according to the circumstances under which his possession has been held. If the real owner be all the while present in the country, his right is prescribed by *ten* years; if he be absent, by *twenty*; but the possessor, to be entitled thus to prescribe, must be a possessor in *good faith*, and by a *just title*; and the term "*just title*," in this connection, is defined, by the civil law, to mean a title *apparently sufficient* to convey the property. When the real owner is a part of the time present and a part of the time absent, it is provided that two years of absence shall be reckoned as one of presence. *Thirty* years' possession sustains a plea of prescription against the claim of the real owner, whether present or absent, whether the possessor has or has not a just title, and whether he holds in good or bad faith. And, in this respect, there is a broad distinction between the provisions of the civil and those of the common law; for, by the latter, *no length* of possession is sufficient to bar the title of the legal owner, unless that possession be *adverse* to him; and to constitute an *adverse possession*, good faith, and, if a title, a just title, (under the civil law definition of that term,) are absolute pre-requisites. Nothing can be more unjust than the very general and popular belief, that where the common law prevails, as in New York, the lapse of twenty years, or any other length of time, during which the rightful owner has neglected to claim his land, is sufficient, in all cases, to perfect the title of the possessor, by raising on his behalf the legal presumption of a grant. This presumption is never raised but in favor of the possessor who has held in good faith, and where the possession originated in a paper title; this good faith is directly rebutted, when, upon the exhibition of that title, it appears, upon its face, to be absolutely void.

Thus, where the possessor holds lands under a judgment or decree of an incompetent court, or a tribunal which, at the date of the judgment, was *functus officio* for the purposes of rendering such a judgment, or by a grant from an individual or individuals, in an official capacity, who, at the date of this grant, had, by law, no such official capacity, (as a court for the imposition of fines and the creation of forfeitures of estates, *after the ratification of the treaty of peace*, or the commissioners of forfeitures *after*

such ratification,) the lawful owner, or his heirs, may recover the property notwithstanding any length of time during which he or they have neglected to demand its restoration. But this, as we have seen, is not the case in Louisiana; for, by the civil law, thirty years' possession bars, by prescription, the right of the legal owner, whatever may have been the character or origin of the possession.

Prescription may be pleaded to the claim of the rightful owner of *slaves* by the possessor who has held them *one-half* the length of time required to sustain such plea against a claim to immoveable property; and prescription may be pleaded to the claim of the legal owner of *moveable* property, by the possessor who has held the same *three years*.

We have seen in what manner the lapse of time necessary to sustain the plea of prescription is affected by the *absence* of the legal owner. With regard to the other disabilities to institute a judicial claim, such as *infancy, lunacy, imprisonment*, (coverture is not a disability by the civil law,) the time only begins to run from the cessation of such disability.

The second general division of the subject of prescription by the civil code, is, That by which debts are discharged.

By the common law, the rules establishing the limitations of time sufficient to bar the recovery of debts, are few and simple; and the statutes of the several States have made but little variation from the common law provisions. Generally, the only division of debts, in this connection, is that of debt by simple contract, and by specialty or record. To recover upon the former, no action can be sustained after the lapse of *six years* from the time when the cause of action accrued; upon the latter, after the lapse of *twenty years*. By the provisions of the civil code, debts, as affected by prescription, are divided into numerous classes, and are discharged, in a longer or shorter time, according to the class in which they are enumerated. This classification seems, in many instances, purely arbitrary, and it is difficult to perceive why a debt in one class should be prescribed by the lapse of ten, five, or three years, rather than one, or *vice versa*.

No action can be sustained to recover fees due a justice of the peace, a constable, a notary, or the compensation of a schoolmaster, or an instructor in the arts and sciences, *who teach by the month*, unless the action be brought within *one year* from the time of the performance of the service. The lapse of *one year*, too, prescribes the claims of inn-keepers and boarding-house-keepers for board; of retailers, of workmen, laborers, and servants; the claims of ship-owners for freight, and the claims of officers, sailors, and the crew of ships and vessels, for their wages.

Claims for supplies and materials furnished vessels, are prescribed, too, by the lapse of *one year*; and this prescription operates upon the items in account of supplies and materials furnished, and of labor or service performed, of a date older than one year, even though there have been a regular continuation of supplies furnished, or of service or labor done, down to the time of the commencement of the suit. But, as to the claim for wages of officers or crews of vessels, the *one year* does not begin to run until the termination of the voyage.

No action for slander, or to recover any damage resulting from an offence, or quasi offence, can be brought after the expiration of *one year* from the time when the cause of action accrued. The lapse of *one year*, too, bars a claim for the non-delivery of merchandise shipped on board

any kind of a vessel ; and also any claim for damage sustained by merchandise shipped on board any kind of vessel, or for any damage which may have occurred by reason of a collision of any kind of vessels ; in these cases, the *one year's* prescription begins to run from the day of the arrival of the ship or vessel.

Claims for arrearages of rent, for annuities, for alimony, for the hire of moveables, or immoveables, are prescribed by the lapse of *three years*. *Three years* are required, also, to sustain a plea of prescription to a claim for money lent ; for the wages of overseers, clerks, and secretaries ; also to claims for compensation by schoolmasters or teachers *who teach by the year or quarter* ; and to the claims of physicians, surgeons, apothecaries, judges, sheriffs, clerks, and attorneys.

Bills of exchange, promissory notes payable to order or to bearer, and all choses in action which are transferable by endorsement or delivery, are prescribed by the lapse of *five years* from the time when the cause of action accrued upon them.

Actions to annul contracts, testamentary or other acts, for the reduction of donations, for the rescission of partitions, and for the guaranty of portions, are each and all prescribed by the lapse of five years ; and the same time is necessary to sustain a plea of prescription to a claim for damage against a builder or architect, for a defect in the construction or design of a building.

All claims and obligations, not specified in any of the enumerated classes, are declared to be barred by prescription in *ten years*, if the debtor be present, and in *twenty*, if he be absent.

The old common law doctrine that the statute of limitations, having once began to run against a debt, is not arrested by the intervention of any disability to enforce the claim, (now, in most of the States, controlled by statute or judicial authority,) never found its way into the judicial construction of the civil law prescription. On the contrary, with those qualifications which have been before specified, the time during which a disability to prosecute the claim exists, is, in all cases, deducted from the time established as necessary to sustain the plea of prescription.

With regard to the revival of a claim which has been once barred by prescription, the doctrine of the civil law is much the same as that which has recently prevailed in the courts of common law jurisdiction ; but, as under the civil law, the lapse of time is declared to operate a *discharge of the debt*, and not a mere loss of the remedy to enforce it, a distinct acknowledgment and unequivocal promise to pay, have always been held necessary to its revival.

INTEREST.

There are two rates of interest established by the laws of Louisiana ; the legal and the conventional. The legal interest is *five per cent* ; the conventional is now *eight* ; though, previous to the legislative session of 1844, it was fixed at *ten per cent*.

The stipulation for, or reservation of, a sum beyond the fixed conventional rate, does not, as in New York, involve the loss of the debt ; but in such case, the principal only can be recovered.

Interest is not a necessary incident to a claim for moneys due. It must be expressly provided for, or it cannot be recovered, save from the time when a *demand* of payment of the debt is proved to have been made, or

from the institution of the suit, which is a judicial demand. This, upon the principle that *interest* is of the nature of *damages* for the non-payment of money due, and that damages should not be imposed upon a debtor until after he has been put in default by a failure or refusal to comply with an amicable or judicial demand.

ART. VII.—THE CHANCES OF SUCCESS IN MERCANTILE LIFE.

WE certainly take no pleasure, as the conductor of a journal devoted to the interests of commerce, in disparaging the calling of the merchant; but, as the honest advocate of whatever is calculated to promote his moral and social well-being, it becomes our duty to lay before him the difficulties and dangers of his profession, as well as the varied information so requisite to the successful and accomplished merchant.

On the evening of the 28th of February, 1840, General HENRY A. S. DEARBORN delivered an address at an agricultural meeting of the members of the legislature, in the state-house in Boston, which embraced a statement touching the chances of success in mercantile pursuits, that astonished many, and attracted the attention of business men in all parts of the country. We had frequently seen the statements alluded to quoted in the public journals and in lectures before mercantile associations, and agricultural societies; but, as a report of the address had only been published in some of the eastern agricultural periodicals, we had only met with the single remark of its author, "*that among one hundred merchants and traders, not more than three, in the city of Boston, have acquired independence.*" We therefore wrote to General Dearborn for a copy of his remarks made in connection with that statement, which he has kindly transcribed, and placed at our disposal. The reader will bear in mind that General Dearborn was speaking to an audience chiefly composed of cultivators of the earth, and wished to impress upon them the advantages, in all respects, of a rural home, and only presented a well established fact to show them how delusive was the youthful dream of fortune in the hazardous career of commercial adventure. As a branch of industry, and one of the most important, General Dearborn considers commercial enterprise, and national trade, in all its divisions, as deserving the highest commendations; but, like distinctions in the army and navy, how few obtain the guerdon of wealth and honorable fame!

General Dearborn was collector of the port of Boston for nearly twenty years, and was, therefore, enabled to notice the vicissitudes in trade; and his statements are confirmed, as will be seen, by the remarks of a Boston merchant, which are here appended to the extracts from his address.

EXTRACT FROM AN ADDRESS DELIVERED BY GEN'L H. A. S. DEARBORN, IN BOSTON.

"In England the pleasures, and privileges, and blessings, of the COUNTRY, seem properly understood and valued. No man there considers himself a freeman unless he has a right in the soil. Merchants, bankers, citizens, and men of every description, whose condition in life allows them to aspire after anything better, are looking forward always to retirement in the country—to the possession of a garden or a farm, and to the full enjoyment of rural pleasures. The taste of the nobility of England is eminently in that direction. There are none of them who, with all the means of luxury which the most enormous wealth can afford, even think of spending the year in London, or of remaining in the confinement, noise,

and confusion of the city, a day longer than they are compelled to do by their parliamentary or other public duties.

"There is, in this respect, a marked difference between England and France. Formerly the nobility of France were scattered broadcast over the territory, and had their villas, their castles and chateaux, in all the provinces of the kingdom. But the monarchs, anxious to increase the splendor of their courts, and to concentrate around them all that was imposing and beautiful in fashion, luxury and wealth, collected the aristocracy in the capital. The natural consequence was, that the country was badly tilled, and agriculture made no advancement; while England was making rapid and extraordinary progress in the useful and beautiful arts of agriculture and horticulture; and now, in her cultivation, presents an example of all that is interesting in embellishment, and important in production. We are the descendants of England; yet, on these subjects, we have reversed the order of taste and sentiment which there prevails.

"Happy would it be for us if our gentlemen of wealth and intelligence would copy the bright example of the affluent and exalted men of England. If, after having accumulated immense fortunes in cities, they would carry their riches and science into the country, and seek to reclaim, to improve, and render it more productive and beautiful, Massachusetts might be transformed into a garden, and rival the best cultivated regions on the globe.

"It is an inexplicable fact, that even men who have grown rich, in any manner, in the country, should rush into cities to spend their wealth; and it is equally as remarkable that those who have accumulated fortunes in the city, shudder at the idea of going into the country, where wealth might be safely appropriated to purposes of the highest utility, pleasure and refinement.

"There prevails in this rather too much ignorance, false sentiment, and unworthy prejudice. The city must, of course, be regarded as the proper seat of active business, in all the branches of commerce and navigation. But when a large portion of life has been spent in these harassing pursuits, and men have acquired the means of competence and independence in the country, why they should not seek to enjoy the refreshing exercise, the delightful recreations, and the privileged hours of retirement and reflection, which a rural residence affords, was a mystery which it was impossible to solve.

"It was not merely the ungovernable influence of a city life, upon health, comfort, and enjoyment, but its pernicious moral influence, was most deeply to be deplored. Many an uncorrupted young man from the country, impelled by a reckless passion for gain, has there early found the grave of his virtues. But too many instances might be pointed out, in which the acquisition of property has proved as great a curse as could have befallen them. The chances of success in trade are likewise much less numerous, and are more uncertain than men generally believe, or are willing to allow. After an extensive acquaintance with business men, and having long been an attentive observer of the course of events in the mercantile community, I am satisfied that, AMONG ONE HUNDRED MERCHANTS AND TRADERS, NOT MORE THAN THREE, in this city, ever acquire independence. It was with great distrust that I came to this conclusion; but, after consulting with an experienced merchant, he fully admitted its truth. Infinitely better, therefore, would it be for a vast portion of the young men who leave the country for the city, if they could be satisfied with a farmer's life. How preferable would it have been for many of those who have sought wealth and distinction in cities, if they had been satisfied with the comforts, innocent amusements, and soothing quietude of the country; and, instead of the sad tale of their disasters, which must go back to the parental fireside, the future traveller, as he passed the humble church-yard in which they had been laid at rest with their laborious ancestors, might truthfully repeat these emphatic words of England's gifted bard:—

'Some village Hampden, that, with dauntless breast,
The little tyrant of his fields withstood;
Some mute, inglorious Milton, here may rest;
Some Cromwell, guiltless of his country's blood.'

The following confirmatory remarks of an intelligent gentleman from Boston, recently appeared in the "Farmers' Library:—

"The statement made by General Dearborn appeared to me so startling, so appalling, that I was induced to examine it with much care, and I regret to say I found it true. I then called upon a friend, a great antiquarian, a gentleman always referred to in all matters relating to the city of Boston, and he told me that, in the year 1800, he took a memorandum of every person on Long Wharf, and that, in 1840, (which is as long as a merchant continues business,) only five in one hundred remained. They had all, in that time, either *failed*, or *died destitute of property*. I then went to a very intelligent director of the Union Bank (a very strong bank); he told me that the bank commenced business in 1798; that there was then but one other bank in Boston, the Massachusetts Bank, and that the bank was so overrun with business, that the clerks and officers were obliged to work until twelve o'clock at night, and all Sundays; that they had occasion to look back, a year or two ago, and they found, that of the *one thousand* accounts which were opened with them in starting, only *six* remained; they had, in the forty years, either *failed*, or *died destitute of property*. Houses whose paper had passed without a question, *had all gone down* in that time. Bankruptcy, said he, is like death, and almost as certain; they fall single and alone, and are thus forgotten; but there is no escape from it; and he is a fortunate man who *fails young*.

"Another friend told me that he had occasion to look through the probate office, a few years since, and he was surprised to find that over 90 per cent of all the estates settled there, were *insolvent*. And, within a few days, I have gone back to the incorporation of our banks in Boston. I have a list of the directors since they started. This is, however, a very unfair way of testing the rule, for bank directors are the most substantial men in the community. In the old bank, over one-third had failed in forty years, and in the new bank, a much larger proportion.

"I am sorry to present to you so gloomy a picture, and I trust you will instil into your sons, as General Dearborn recommends, a love of agriculture; for, in mercantile pursuits, they will fail, to a dead certainty."

Art. VIII.—RAILROAD FROM THE ATLANTIC TO THE PACIFIC.

THE subject of, and necessity for a route to India or Asia, west from Europe, has been talked of, and speculated upon from time immemorial. Columbus was in search of India when he discovered this continent. Humboldt and others have made great efforts to find a route across this continent, to communicate with the two oceans, and bring the East and West together. England has expended enormous sums, immense toils, sufferings and deprivations, to find a northwest passage through an ocean of perpetual ice. Surveys and explorations have been made across Panama, Darien, &c., the last under the authority of the French government, under the direction and command of the highly distinguished engineer, General Garella, whose very able report is fully reviewed in the *Courrier des Etats Unis* of 16th September, 1846, showing clearly the impracticability of a ship canal or railroad, either at Panama, Darien, or across that part of the continent; and even if the geographical and geological formation would permit, the climate, want of soil or country to sustain a population, dangerous navigation, with the impossibility of forming safe and sufficient harbors and ports on either side, are insurmountable objections. But we have before us the very able report of Senator Breese, on the project of A. Whitney, Esq., of New York, to build a railroad from Lake Michigan to the Pacific, from the sale and settlement of the public lands. The Committee on Public Lands, to whom the subject was referred, is composed of the following distinguished statesmen: Senators Breese, (chairman,) More-

head, Woodbridge, Ashley and Chalmers ; who, after a full consideration of the whole subject in all its bearings, reported unanimously in its favor, and introduced a bill setting apart the lands prayed for by the memorialist, to enable him to carry out his great project. The bill was passed to a second reading, and with the report ordered printed for the use of the Senate. Thus we have before us this mighty project, which will, if carried out, revolutionize the entire world, commercially, politically, morally and socially ; sanctioned and endorsed by a committee of the Senate of the United States, and since (so far as we have been able to learn) has received the almost unanimous and entire approbation of the press and the public throughout the country. Before we proceed to notice more fully the report, we will enter into a short explanation, or description of the commerce of Asia, which has been the source and foundation of all the commerce and wealth of the world for centuries past, and which has always, till recently, caused a continual drain of the precious metals in exchange for silks, teas, spices, and the almost exclusive products of Asia ; and with this great disadvantage, we find that from the time of the Phœnicians to the present day, the countries of Asia have been the great theatre for the commercial enterprise of the world, and will, undoubtedly, so continue to the end of time. It has been possessed and controlled by one nation or people after another, each fattening upon the golden crop ; city after city has been built up by this vast commerce, and made its emporium ; from Tyre, "the queen of cities," whose "traffickers were the honorables of the earth," Palmyra, Alexandria, Constantinople, Venice and Genoa, Antwerp, Lisbon, Amsterdam and London, each nation and city has flourished and prospered, and its loss has been their downfall or decay. England now holds and controls it in her iron grasp—her possessions in India have been a guaranty of its continuance, because the distance, time, and immense expense, required to carry it on, forbade any competition from other nations, and she will not seek to open any new channel, which may shorten distance or lessen expense, and raise up competitors. She would undoubtedly oppose the opening of any new channel where her vast power and political influence could be brought to operate against it ; but in this case it is beyond her reach—the lands, the way, are our own, and we have none to consult but ourselves ; and with this road, what would be our position and picture ? Europe, with her 250,000,000, 3,000 miles from us on the one side, and Asia, a little more than 5,000 miles from us, with her 700,000,000, on the other side, politically and commercially commanding both, and both tributary to us ; and all the vast, the rich commerce of all Asia, which has been the source of so much wealth, built up so many cities and empires, caused so much strife and bloodshed, is now to become ours ; and all passing through the centre of our country, and bringing together the entire world, in free intercourse, as one family. The view is almost too vast for the mind to contemplate : but the committee have made the plan and the work plain and clear, and we are much indebted to it, for the great care and labor bestowed upon the subject—one of such vast magnitude and importance, and so novel, requires great courage and foresight in a statesman to be willing to risk his reputation upon it. Senator Breese has been found to possess both foresight and courage for the occasion ; and the committee, together, have supported and sustained him—and to him and his associates, will all mankind be for ever indebted, if this stupendous work is accomplished.

The report referred to classifies the material points involved in this undertaking, under twelve distinct heads, each of which is argued and exemplified in a calm and conclusive manner. They say—

"The proposition is a startling one, and of vast importance to our country and to the world; a deliberate consideration of which, naturally resolves it into several points, seeming, in the opinion of the committee, to claim attention in the following order:

- "1. The power of Congress over the entire subject in all its bearings.
- "2. The practicability of the proposed work.
- "3. The adequacy of the means proposed for its accomplishment, and the expediency of applying such means to this object.
- "4. The effect of its construction in bringing into demand, and enhancing in value, the public lands, in every part of the country.
- "5. Its effect in extending and promoting the interest of agriculture.
- "6. Its effect in the support, and as a means of enlarging and diversifying the manufactures of the country.
- "7. Its effect in developing the mineral resources of the country.
- "8. Its effect as one of the great arteries of intercourse, in extending the internal trade and commerce of the whole country.
- "9. Its effect in extending our commerce with China and the other countries of Asia, the eastern Archipelago, and other islands in the Pacific, and with the countries on the western coast of North and South America.
- "10. Its consequence in fostering the whale and other fisheries in the Pacific, the bays and rivers thereof; in extending and protecting the mercantile marine in those seas; and thus forming the most extensive nursery of seamen, and strengthening the maritime power of the United States.
- "11. Its use as a great highway of nations, serving for purposes of travel and transportation at rates of charge and transit duties to be regulated by ourselves, being in all respects subject to our power and control, encouraging constant intercourse, and imparting to the citizens of other countries the liberal principles of our own government.
- "12. and lastly. The effect that would be produced in a moral, political, and military point of view to the American Union, by the construction of a railroad across the continent, to the shores of the Pacific."

The report exhibits a statement, estimating the saving in capital now employed in the commerce of Europe and America with all Asia, and the countries and islands of the Pacific, on the cost of tonnage, alone, to be \$30,493,613. But the great facilities which the road cannot fail to produce, must so vastly increase commerce, as to require a far greater amount of tonnage than at the present time.

The following table (I.) from the report, exhibits the tonnage and men now employed in the commerce with all Asia and the Pacific, which it is supposed may be brought over this road; and Table II. exhibits the amount of imports and exports to and from all Asia:—

TABLE I.—Statement of the number of vessels, amount of tonnage, and crews, which entered and cleared at the ports of the following countries, from and to ports beyond the Cape of Good Hope and the Pacific.

	INWARD.			OUTWARD.		
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Men.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Men.
England, 1842,.....	877	329,404	16,698	823	348,725	18,468
United States, 1845,.....	329	111,180	6,998	367	125,582	8,305
France, 1833,.....	117	36,040	2,048	117	36,040	2,038
Antwerp, 1839,.....	7	2,860	125	1	272	12
Bremen, 1841,.....	6	1,800	100			
Hamburg, 1841,.....	10	5,000	200	10	5,000	200
The Netherlands, 1840,.....	188	97,231	5,150	221	113,862	5,625
Russia, with China, est'd to require	50	25,000	1,000	50	25,000	1,000
	1,584	608,515	32,319	1,589	654,480	35,648

TABLE II.—Imports and exports into and from Europe and America, from and to ports or places beyond the Cape of Good Hope and the Pacific Ocean.

	Imports.	Exports.
Great Britain,.....	\$85,527,120	\$59,187,185
France,.....	16,300,295	8,238,850
Antwerp, no statistics; but the seven ships entered must have averaged more than \$100,000,.....	700,000	500,000
Hamburg, " " " for five ships,.....	500,000	400,000
Bremen, " " " for six ships,.....	600,000	400,000
The Netherlands,.....	23,527,390	4,702,130
United States,.....	11,438,403	5,443,828
United States, from whale fishery for 1845:		
157,700 barrels sperm oil, a 88 cts.,	\$4,374,144 00	
272,809 " whale oil, a 33½ "	2,864,494 33	
3,195,054 lbs. whalebone, a 33½ "	1,065,018 00	
	8,225,717	
	146,818,925	78,871,993
Add for Russia, overland, with China,.....	12,048,055	7,581,295
	\$158,866,980	\$86,453,288

We regret that our limits, at this time, will not permit us to exhibit the facts and arguments of the report in the present, but we may resume the subject, however, in a future number.

Art. IX.—INDIAN MOUNDS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

A WRITER in your valuable Magazine, (for September, 1846,) has, as he intimates, frankly hazarded suggestions on the subject of Indian Mounds, and invited the conjectures of others to the elucidation of the matter. The same desire to arrive at truth respecting those remains, induces me to offer the opinions formed with regard to them, after much observation of their appearance and structure.

THEIR STRUCTURE.—The structure of these tumuli, as they have been called, improperly as I believe, but no doubt from an opinion that they are simply tombs of the original inhabitants of this country, presents a generally similar aspect, but they vary in size. A great number of them are to be seen in this section of Alabama, and even now, a particular part of one of the streets of Tuscaloosa, exhibits the semblance of one of these antique elevations. In the neighborhood of Carthage, a village sixteen miles from the above named city, is to be found one, its top embracing an acre of ground, and covered by forest trees of very great age. Under its surface the hand of the curious has occasionally gone, to drag forth the relics of ancient days—bones, pipes, bowls, &c. One remarkable remain is, an iron rod, drawn up from a considerable distance, and evidently not belonging to present times or connected with present uses. These mounds are commonly pyramidal in shape, and flattened at the top; unquestionably, however, the present obtuseness is owing more to time than the original formation.

THEIR OBJECT.—If I may risk a supposition as to the design of these accumulations, it will be found to differ wholly from that of the correspondent alluded to. I believe that they are records of some great event,—a

battle, a victory, or other great tribal success. This opinion is sustained as well by analogy as by intrinsic evidences.

1. It has been the custom of all uncivilized people to resort to similar means to perpetuate the memory of some event, either useful or extraordinary. Piles of stone or of earth have in this way been made landmarks separating the grounds of different tribes, the records of great battles, and victories, and of extraordinary inundations. The history of antiquity is so full of instances of the kind, as to make particular allusion useless. Among the Hebrews, the Greeks, the Tuscans, before the discovery of hieroglyphics and letters, such methods of recording events were usual; and it is but a fair argument from analogy, to infer that like rude monuments, among other rude Indian tribes on this continent, owe their origin to the same objects.

2. The various remains found in these mounds, go to justify the belief that such was the design of their erection. In them is found not merely human bones, and not alone articles incident to the dwellings of such people. If they were in fact cemeteries, nothing would be discovered but the former, and the barbarian sarcophagus in which they are enclosed. From positive evidences now at hand, it is proved that the Indians buried their dead, either in rude coffins of stones placed together, or in large earthen jars, of which the top was subsequently closed. The writer has lately seen one of these latter, and it is wonderful into how small a space may be pressed a human body. If, on the other hand, they were not designed for burying places, but for dwellings, as supposed by your late correspondent, it would seem that the relics should consist alone of household articles; and that it would be difficult to account for the presence of dead bodies. The Indians never followed the practice of burying their dead amidst their habitations. On the contrary, they selected spots distant and retired from their homes, always seeking places where the foot of wild beast or human foe could never reach. The writer has, with some difficulty, climbed to the place where the rude Alibamos once deposited their dead. It is a high and almost inaccessible cliff on the Alabama river, one side rising perpendicularly from the western edge of this stream near the old town of Claiborne, and cut off from approach on the other side by deep ravines, over which alone screams the native vulture of these regions. Here, amidst rough, misshapen tablets of stone, have I labored to excavate the bones of the Indian, whose voice once awoke the sleeping echoes of these wild river hills, but is now as still as the deathly silence of his impervious grave. Two other facts are conclusive against the supposition that these could have been Indian habitations. In the first place there has been no proportion whatever to the number of families inhabiting these regions; and in the second, they are not always in situations which these people would select for residences. Upon the first head, it is sufficient to remark that they do not exist in any regularity, and are not found in the neighborhood of places where it is known there were extensive habitations. So far as they are found in situations which are not usually selected for habitations, it may be said that an intimate acquaintance with the country but very lately pressed by the Indians' feet, and with many of their habits of life, justify the declaration that these monuments are most often found on the banks of large rivers, or crossing places at these rivers, in very unhealthy situations. No people have ever existed more careful in the selection of healthful situations for their rude residences, than the

Indians of the North American continent. In this part of it, their practice in that particular is an unerring guide; and the emigrant who follows upon the path of the westward retreating wild man of Alabama and Mississippi, ever knows that he is in an ancient Indian settlement.

In addition, it may be observed, that the articles usually found on excavating such mounds, are such as usually would be present with portions of an Indian tribe, emigrating, or on a hunting expedition, or engaged in a contest with a neighboring race; arrow-heads, clubs, pipes, water vessels, corn jars, lances, &c. If, after one of our late battles in the Creek nation, or in Florida, the field had been raked up into a pyramidal pile,—mingling dead bodies, the arms of the vanquished, and the various articles commonly found with a nomadic people, the very appearance would be discovered exhibited now, by the structures we are considering.

If further surmise may be ventured, I would say that, if it is true that our aboriginal Indians are lost portions of the great body of emigrating tribes passing on towards Mexico, it would appear probable that these mounds were rude temples built up towards the supposed region of the gods they worshipped, and where they, by human sacrifices, and rude offerings of matters most useful to themselves in life, propitiated the divine protection. Similar places of worship and sacrifice, but of more finished construction, were found in Mexico; and it is not presuming too much, to suppose that the fragments of tribes, lost on their passage through the country, and afterwards becoming settled in it, preserved some traces of the customs of the parent nation. On the tops of these elevations, therefore, as upon the tops of the improved stone edifices of the more advanced Mexicans, were probably carried on those awful solemnities of a barbarian worship, the recitals of which fill us with terror.

But enough of these conjectures. They are thrown out more in the spirit of inquiry than controversy, and if they shall elicit from more wise and experienced minds the truth of the subject, the end of the writer will be attained.

B. F. P.

Art. X.—MAXIMS FOR MERCHANTS AND BUSINESS MEN.

ON THE TRANSACTION OF BUSINESS.

1. THIS subject may be divided into two parts: 1. Dealing with others about business. 2. Dealing with the business itself.

I. DEALING WITH OTHERS ABOUT BUSINESS.

2. The first part of the general subject embraces the choice and management of agents, the transaction of business by means of interviews, the choice of colleagues, and the use of councils. Each of these topics will be treated separately. There remain, however, certain general rules with respect to our dealings with others, which may naturally find a place here.

3. In your converse with the world avoid anything like a juggling dexterity. The proper use of dexterity is to prevent your being circumvented by the cunning of others. It should not be aggressive.

4. Concessions and compromises form a large and very important part of our dealings with others. Concessions must generally be looked upon as distinct defeats; and you must expect no gratitude for them. I am far

from saying that it may not be wise to make concessions, but this will be done more wisely when you understand the nature of them.

5. In making compromises do not think to gain much by concealing your views and wishes. You are as likely to suffer from its not being known how to please or satisfy you, as from any attempt to overreach you, grounded on a knowledge of your wishes.

6. Delay is, in some instances, to be adopted advisedly. It sometimes brings a person to reason when nothing else could; when his mind is so occupied with one idea that he completely over-estimates its relative importance. He can hardly be brought to look at the subject calmly, by any force of reasoning. For this disease, time is the only doctor.

7. A good man of business is very watchful, both over himself and others, to prevent things from being carried against his sense of right in moments of lassitude. After a matter has been much discussed, whether to the purpose or not, there comes a time when all parties are anxious that it should be settled; and there is then some danger of the handiest way of getting rid of the matter being taken for the best.

8. It is often worth while to bestow much pains in gaining over foolish people to your way of thinking: and you should do it soon. Your reasons will always have some weight with the wise. But if at first you omit to put your arguments before the foolish, they will form their prejudices; and a fool is often very consistent, and very fond of repetition. He will be repeating his folly in season and out of season, until at last it has a hearing; and it is hard if it does not sometimes chime in with external circumstances.

9. A man of business should take care to consult occasionally with persons of a nature quite different from his own. To very few are given all the qualities requisite to form a good man of business. Thus a man may have the sternness and the fixedness of purpose so necessary in the conduct of affairs, yet these qualities prevent him, perhaps, from entering into the characters of those about him. He is likely to want tact. He will be unprepared for the extent of versatility and vacillation in other men. But these defects and oversights might be remedied by consulting with persons whom he knows to be possessed of the qualities supplementary to his own. Men of much depth of mind can bear a great deal of counsel; for it does not easily deface their own character, nor render their purposes indistinct.

II. DEALING WITH THE BUSINESS ITSELF.

10. The first thing to be considered in this division of the subject, is the collection and arrangement of your materials. Do not fail to begin with the earliest history of the matter under consideration. Be careful not to give way to any particular theory while you are merely collecting materials, lest it should influence you in the choice of them. You must work for yourself; for what you reject may be as important for you to have seen and thought about, as what you adopt; besides, it gives you a command of the subject, and a comparative fearlessness of surprise which you will never have if you rely on other people for your materials. In some cases, however, you may save time by not laboring much, beforehand, at parts of the subject which are nearly sure to be worked out in discussion.

11. When you have collected and arranged your information, there

comes the task of deciding upon it. To make this less difficult, you must use method, and practise economy in thinking. You must not weary yourself by considering the same thing in the same way; just oscillating over it, as it were; seldom making much progress, and not marking the little that you have made. You must not lose your attention in reveries about the subject; but must bring yourself to the point by such questions as these: What has been done? What is the state of the case at present? What can be done next? What ought to be done? Express in writing the answers to your questions. Use the pen—there is no magic in it, but it prevents the mind from staggering about. It forces you to methodize your thoughts. It enables you to survey the matter with a less tired eye; whereas, in thinking vaguely, you not only lose time, but you acquire a familiarity with the husk of the subject, which is absolutely injurious. Your apprehension becomes dull; you establish associations of ideas which occur again and again to distract your attention; and you become more tired than if you had really been employed in mastering the subject.

12. When you have arrived at your decision, you have to consider how you shall convey it. In doing this, be sure that you very rarely, if ever, say anything which is not immediately relevant to the subject. Beware of indulging in maxims, in abstract propositions, or in anything of that kind. Let your subject fill the whole of what you say. Human affairs are so wide, subtle, and complicated, that the most sagacious man had better content himself with pronouncing upon those points alone upon which his decision is called for.

13. It will often be a nice question whether or not to state the motives for your decisions. Much will depend upon the nature of the subject, upon the party whom you have to address, and upon your power of speaking out the whole truth. When you can give all your motives, it will, in most cases, be just to others, and eventually good for yourself, to do so. If you can only state some of them, then you must consider whether they are likely to mislead, or whether they tend to the full truth. And for your own sake, there is this to be considered in giving only a part of your reasons; that those which you give are generally taken to be the whole, or, at any rate, the best that you have. And, hereafter, you may find yourself precluded from using an argument which turns out to be a very sound one, which had great weight with you, but which you were at the time unwilling, or did not think it necessary, to put forward.

14. When you have to communicate the motives for an unfavorable decision, you will naturally study how to convey them so as to give least pain, and to insure least discussion. These are not unworthy objects; but they are immediate ones, and therefore likely to have their full weight with you. Beware that your anxiety to attain them does not carry you into an implied falsehood; for, to say the least of it, evil is latent in that. Each day's converse with the world ought to confirm us in the maxim that a bold but not unkind sincerity should be the groundwork of all our dealings.

15. It will often be necessary to make a general statement respecting the history of some business. It should be lucid, yet not overburdened with details. It must have a method not merely running through it, but visible upon it—it must have method in its form. You must build it up, *beginning at the beginning*, giving each part its due weight, and not hur-

rying over those steps which happen to be peculiarly familiar to yourself. You must thoroughly enter into the ignorance of others, and so avoid forestalling your conclusions. The best teachers are those who can seem to forget what they know full well; who work out results, which have become axioms in their minds, with all the interest of a beginner, and with footsteps no longer than his.

16. It is a good practice to draw up, and put on record, an abstract of the reasons upon which you have come to a decision on any complicated subject; so that if it is referred to, there is but little labor in making yourself master of it again. Of course this practice will be more or less necessary, according as your decision has been conveyed with a reserved or with a full statement of the reasons upon which it was grounded.

17. Of all the correspondence you receive, a concise record should be kept; which should also contain a note of what was done upon any letter, and of where it was sent to, or put away. Documents relating to the same subject should be carefully brought together. You should endeavor to establish such a system of arranging your papers, as may insure their being readily referred to, and yet not to require too much time and attention to be carried into daily practice. Fac-similes should be kept of all the letters which you send out.

18. These seem little things: and so they are, unless you neglect them.

MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

DIGEST OF AMERICAN CASES.*

BANK ACTION.

A BANK that receives from another bank, for collection, a note endorsed by the cashier of that bank, is bound to present the note to the maker, for payment, at maturity, and, if it is not paid, to give notice of non-payment to the bank from which the note was received; is not bound, unless by special agreement, to give such notice to the other parties to the note. *Phipps vs. Milbury Bank.*

2. A party who brings an action against a bank that is afterwards restrained by injunction, from further proceeding in its business, and whose property and effects are put into the hands of receivers, does not, by proving his claim before the receivers, but without receiving a certificate thereof, or taking a dividend, bar his right to proceed in the action. *Watson v. Phoenix Bank.*

3. In a suit on a demand due from a bank, the plaintiff is entitled to recover interest thereon from the time of action brought, although the bank is afterwards restrained, by injunction, from proceeding in its business, and its property is put into the hands of receivers. *Id.*

BILL OF EXCHANGE.

When the drawee of a bill of exchange, who resides in New York, writes a letter there to the drawer, who resides in this State, accepting the bill, which was drawn in this State, the contract of acceptance is made in New York, and is governed by the law of that State; and the bill must be presented there to the acceptor for payment. *Worcester Bank vs. Wells.*

2. By the law of New York, an acceptance of a bill of exchange, "written on a paper other than the bill, shall not bind the acceptor, except in favor of a person

* Selections from Massachusetts Reports.

to whom such acceptance shall have been shown, and who, on the faith thereof, shall have received the bill for a valuable consideration." A. drew a bill on B. in New York, and procured it to be discounted at a bank: B. afterwards wrote a letter to A., accepting the bill, and A. exhibited the letter to the officers of the bank. *Held*, that the bank could not maintain an action against B. on his acceptance. *Ib.*

3. A promise to accept a bill of exchange is a chose in action, on which no one besides the immediate promisee can maintain a suit in his own name. *Ib.*

MARINE INSURANCE.

When a part owner of a vessel or its outfits, effects insurance thereon in his own name only, and nothing in the policy shows that the interest of any other person is secured thereby, an action on the policy cannot be maintained in the names of all the owners, upon parol evidence that such part owner was their agent for procuring insurance, and that his agency and their ownership were known to the underwriters, and that the underwriters agreed to insure for them all, and that it was the intention of all the parties, in making the policy, to cover the interest of all the owners. *Finney vs. Bedford Commercial Ins. Co.*

2. When insurance is made on a vessel to her port or ports of discharge, the voyage terminates at the port where the cargo is substantially discharged. *Upton vs. Salem Commercial Ins. Co.*

PARTNERSHIP.

When money is lent to part of the members of a firm, who give a note for it in their own names only, the lender is not a creditor of the firm, although the borrowers apply the money towards payment of the debts of the firm. *Green vs. Tanner.*

PROMISSORY NOTE.

In a suit on a promissory note, fairly and intelligently given, by way of compromise of a claim on the maker for rent of land occupied by him, he cannot defend by giving evidence that he was in peaceable and adverse possession of the land more than twenty years next before the giving of the note. *Cobb v. Arnold.*

BLOCKADE—DECISION IN THE CASE OF THE PRIZE BRIG NAYADE.

United States Court (Louisiana.) His Honor Judge McCaleb delivered an opinion at length in the case of the brig *Nayade*, libelled as a prize, by the officers and crew of the United States brig of war "*Somers*."

The facts of the case, as proved, are these: The *Nayade* left the port of Hamburg on the 5th of June, and arrived off Vera Cruz on the 27th of August, when an officer from the *Somers* boarded her, notified her of the blockade, warned her off, and inquired whether she stood in need of provisions or water. To this inquiry the captain replied that he was not in want of anything. The captain of the *Nayade* then steered for Havana. His chief reason for selecting that port was, that he had been there before, and could enter the harbor without a pilot; besides which, he was informed by the boarding officer, that another Dutch ship, warned off, had gone to that port. After sailing towards Havana forty-eight hours, and having progressed only 50 miles on her course, the brig was totally becalmed. The captain became alarmed lest, from the calm, the adverse current, the very bad sailing qualities of his vessel, and the distance (near 1,000 miles) to Havana, he should be short of water, and determined to return to the *Somers* to ask the supply of water that had been offered and declined. He accordingly turned, on the morning of the 29th August, towards the squadron, and on the evening of the same day came within sight of land, and shortened sail, so as to keep off shore till morning, when he hoped to see the *Somers*, or some other vessel of the squadron. On the morning of the 30th he saw the *Somers* between him and Vera

Cruz, and steered directly for her, varying her course as the Somers bore off, so as continually to head towards her. On getting within hailing distance of the Somers, the captain of the *Nayade* put out his boat and asked leave to go on board the former, which was granted. He went on board, asked that his passengers (four in number) be taken off, and a supply of water be given. The captain of the Somers replied, that having returned after being warned off, his vessel must be seized as a prize. The *Nayade* was then taken to Green Island, her passengers and commercial letters having been handed over to a British vessel to be delivered in Vera Cruz. After putting 240 gallons of water on board, in addition to what she already had, she was given in charge of a prize crew, and sailed for New Orleans on the 1st of September. On arriving at the Balize, on the 16th September, only 100 gallons of water were left. Notwithstanding a favorable wind during the whole course from Vera Cruz to this port, so slow a sailer was the *Nayade*, that she was 16 days on this voyage. There were 14 persons in all, on the *Nayade*, on her voyage from Hamburg, and 15 on her voyage from Vera Cruz to this port.

The above facts are proven by the testimony both of the captors and the captured—there being no conflict between them.

The crew of the *Nayade* further testify, that there were about 250 gallons on board when they turned back towards the squadron for water—that they had about 1,500 gallons when they left Hamburg.

His Honor, in the course of his opinion, first stated the general principles of law applicable to the case, which seemed to demand a condemnation. He next commented upon the cases cited by the counsel, and the testimony offered. The fact that made most strongly against the *Nayade*, was the declaration of the captain, at the time of being boarded, that he did not want anything. But the boarding officer himself testified that he staid on board a very short time, and that the captain seemed quite bewildered, and at a loss what to do. It further appeared that this was the first voyage on which he had acted as master. Taking all the circumstances of the case together, as proved, the Court saw no evidence of bad faith, nor anything to discredit the testimony of the crew, and concluded that it was a case of urgent necessity, and that the captain was justified in returning to obtain a supply of water.

The judgment is, that the cargo be restored free of costs; and that inasmuch as there was probable cause of seizure, the vessel be restored upon payment of costs and expenses.

ADVERTISING LIABILITIES.

An action was recently brought in one of the Rhode Island Courts by the publishers of the Providence Herald against Dr. L. S. Comstock of this city, whose "Magical Pain Extractor," "Balm of Columbia," and other preparations, are advertised continually all over the country—from away down-east to the Rio Grande; and its object was to recover the amount of certain bills for advertising, which had been run up by Dr. Comstock's agent in Providence. The defence set up was that the orders for the advertisements had been given by the agent on his own responsibility, and that the publishers could look only to him for payment; but the Court ruled that, as the recognized agent of Comstock & Co., he had authority to make his principal liable for expenses incurred in the management of the business, and that if his authority was limited, Comstock & Co. must show that they had given the publishers notice to that effect.

It is probable that the agents of Comstock & Co., in various parts of the Union, have run up advertising bills to the amount of thousands, for which, under this ruling, Comstock & Co. are liable. So with Dr. Brandreth, Messrs. Sands & Co., and other dealers in patent medicines. If any of their agents are bad paymasters, they may expect to have plenty of bills pouring in upon them.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

STATE OF THE MONEY MARKET—TARIFF—COMMERCE OF NEW YORK—IMPORTS AND EXPORTS—MR. WEBSTER—LOANS—MEXICAN WAR—TREASURY NOTES—TOLLS ON NEW YORK AND PENNSYLVANIA CANALS—PRICE OF LEADING PRODUCTS—BOSTON BANK DIVIDENDS—NEW YORK BANK DIVIDENDS—COMMERCIAL PROSPERITY—EXCHANGES ON NEW YORK—PRECIOUS METALS—LEADING IMPORTS AT NEW ORLEANS, ETC., ETC.

THE state of the money market is quite easy. That is to say, on proper securities, money can be borrowed at a price below the legal rate of 7 per cent. The banking institutions loan freely at 6 per cent, and short loans have been made "at call," at 5 per cent. This is, in some degree, owing to the causes which we have pointed out in former numbers, viz: the feeling of relief which we mentioned in our September number as the consequence of the final settlement of the commercial policy of the country, and the conviction that the panics anticipated, and partially effected, last winter, as the result of the adoption of the new commercial and financial policy, were but the baseless fears of the timid, and the bugbears of the politician. Although the tariff does not actually take effect until December 1st, its practical operation upon the currents of business was felt at the date of its passage. Goods immediately began to be warehoused for the benefit of low duties after December 1st, and buyers of those goods which are to undergo the greatest reduction hung back under the supposition that they would be cheaper in consequence. The duties on goods warehoused in Boston for September amounted to \$240,000. The mere fact that such opinions were entertained, sufficed, in some degree, to insure their correctness; and prices of imported goods fell very low, involving a great sacrifice to the importers. The quantities imported also fell off to a very considerable extent. The following is a statement of the imports and exports of the port of New York, for nine months:—

COMMERCE OF NEW YORK.—VALUE OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

	1845.		1846.	
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.
January.....	6,310,159	1,467,955	5,219,809	2,100,844
February.....	4,730,293	1,820,635	4,652,292	1,845,845
March.....	6,174,077	2,317,202	9,750,269	1,651,817
April.....	5,908,260	2,459,053	6,334,271	2,309,181
May.....	5,464,732	2,971,270	5,488,397	3,114,549
June.....	5,244,496	3,181,788	5,873,655	4,062,249
July.....	6,742,889	2,286,688	6,195,709	3,119,295
August.....	9,964,063	2,709,625	8,457,124	2,678,627
September.....	7,152,750	3,266,334	5,883,816	2,628,825
Total.....	\$57,891,819	\$22,480,549	\$57,855,342	\$23,511,232
Duties.....	15,118,567		14,880,154	

It is observable that, up to the close of June, and during the time when great panic was manifested in certain quarters, in relation to the action of the sub-treasury, and which panic ceased under the wise movement of Mr. Webster in asking certain specific questions of the finance committee in relation to its operations, the imports into the country were in excess of last year. That is to

say, from January to July, the imports were \$2,500,000 more than in the same period of the previous year. Since the close of June, the imports have been less than last year; that is to say, for the quarter ending September 30th, the imports into the port of New York were \$3,323,053 less than in the same quarter of 1845. This state of the import trade evinces the fact that the *political* apprehensions entertained from Congressional actions were not common to the commercial classes, whose operations were, until the definitive action of Congress, more extensive than in the previous year. The effect of anticipated low duties has been, not only to diminish imports, but to throw into warehouse those goods which bear high duties, to avoid the operation of the new law. The influence of this upon the money market has been to lessen the demand not only for remittances in payment of imports, but for duties. Up to the close of June, the government collected in cash from the importers of New York, \$9,494,430, against \$8,744,200 last year, being an increase of \$753,229. Since June, it has collected \$5,395,724, against \$7,377,367 in the same time last year, being \$1,981,643 less; or, in other words, the importers of New York have had to pay the government, in round numbers, \$2,000,000 less in the quarter ending September 30th, than in the same period of 1845. It is also true that, from the close of June, to the first of October, the government diminished its deposits in this city from \$5,105,918 to \$3,211,848, being \$1,894,075 drawn from the banks, and sent to New Orleans for war expenditures. This money being drawn from the banks was necessarily by them called in from loans; and, so far from producing any pressure, money continued to become cheaper. In the first part of October, the Secretary made application for a loan, or rather intimated that he should want four to five millions before January, and the banks offered it at 6 per cent, and finally at 5½; but more than 5 per cent was refused, inasmuch as that 5 per cent treasury notes were a preferable mode of borrowing, and several millions, bearing such a rate of interest, will float in the exchange with service to the community. When the Mexican war burst suddenly upon the country in May last, there was a surplus in the hands of the government of some \$11,000,000, and which had been at the command of the treasury department for more than three years, and had been loaned by it to some fifty banks, free of interest, and, at the same time, the government had been paying 6 per cent interest on a similar amount of its stock outstanding. The circumstance of the war made it probable that that amount would be absorbed in extra expenditures, and that some \$10,000,000 in addition would be required to meet current expenditure. Accordingly, on the twenty-second of July, a law was passed, allowing of the issue of \$10,000,000 of treasury notes, under the limitation of the act of 1837. That is, the notes to be receivable for all public dues, to be paid at the end of the year, to bear not more than 6 per cent interest, to be "purchaseable" on presentation at the depositories of the government, and the interest to cease at the end of the year. For a temporary deficit, this was, undoubtedly, the best mode of proceeding; but it implied that the deficit should be but temporary, and that the treasury should be in funds in the following year, to meet the \$10,000,000 of notes falling due. Should, however, the war unfortunately be prolonged, and the debt increased in amount, the treasury would be embarrassed by the constantly recurring maturity of these notes, and a stock loan for a term of years, would be the most desirable. Some \$2,240,000 of the notes were, however, issued up to October 1st, at an interest of 1 mill per cent per annum, a

merely nominal rate, too low to support the notes in the market, and they fell to a discount, which caused them to be returned to the treasury in payment of customs. The Secretary then made the application for a loan which we have alluded to above. The position seems to be thus, however: if the anticipations of a speedy peace, which have been indulged in, prove fallacious, the amount of war expenditure, and the length of time it is to continue, becomes altogether uncertain. The quantity of stock which the government will have to put upon the market, becomes matter of conjecture, and consequently, its value speculative. Hence an indisposition to take it at a low rate. Should, however, the hopes of a speedy peace be promptly realized, the amount of money which the government will want, becomes fixed and determined, and its value will depend more upon the state of the money market; and, in the present prospect, a 4 per cent stock would command par. The Secretary refused to give 6 per cent, a fact which would augur well for his hopes of peace. Apart from this incident of the money market, and the state of the import trade to which we have alluded, the evidences of prosperity are great and increasing. Among these evidences, the tolls on the public works are the most conclusive. On the great avenues between the Western States and the Atlantic States, they have been as follows, up to October 1st:—

	1845.	1846.	Increase.
New York canals, fiscal year, to Oct. 1.....	\$2,332,436	\$2,743,618	\$411,182
Penna. works, opening of navigation to Oct. 1.	940,926	1,003,125	62,199
Total.....	\$3,273,362	\$3,746,743	\$473,381

On the New York canals, the increase is near 20 per cent, and on both, the excess over last year, increased as the season progressed, stimulated by the enhanced foreign export trade. The railroads and other public works in all sections show a similar improvement, giving unerring indications of growing business activity. The prices of the great leading products of the country have improved as follows:—

	June 10.	July 14.	August.	September.	October 20.
Ashes, pots.....	3 50 @ 3 36	3 50 @ 3 56	3 50 @ 3 56	3 75 @ ...	4 37½ @ 4 50
Cotton, fair.....	7½ @ 8½	7½ @ 8½	8½ @ 8½	8½ @ 9	10½ @ 11
Flour, Ohio.....	3 93 @ 4 00	4 00 @ 4 06½	4 03 @ 4 09	4 75 @ 4 87	6 37½ @ 6 50
Wheat.....	1 00 @ 1 02	95 @ 1 00	92 @ 97	92 @ 1 00	1 16 @ 1 20
Rye.....	... @ 65	70 @ ...	70 @ ...	73 @ 73½	79 @ 81
Corn, southern.....	55 @ 56	52 @ 57	55 @ 56	67 @ 68	75 @ 78
Beef, mess.....	6 00 @ 6 50	6 37 @ 7 00	6 50 @ 7 00	6 50 @ 7 00	... @ ...
Pork, ".....	10 50 @ ...	9 37 @ 9 50	9 62 @ 9 75	9 75 @ ...	10 37 @ 10 50
Lard.....	5½ @ 7	5½ @ 6½	6 @ 7	6 @ 7 7	7½ @ 8
Iron, pig, No. 1.....	34 00 @ 36 00	34 00 @ 36 00	32 50 @ 35 00	32 50 @ 35 00	... @ ...
Coal.....	5 00 @ 6 00	5 00 @ 6 00	00 @ 5 50	5 00 @ 6 00	... @ ...

The advance in these prices in face of the large receipts, is sufficient evidence of the prosperity of the great interests engaged in their production, while the high freights and active employment of the shipping appears alone to check a greater animation, and a further advance in prices. The aggregate receipts of some articles of produce at tide-water on the Hudson, from the commencement of navigation in 1845 and 1846, to and including the first week in October, have been as follows:—

	Flour.	Wheat.	Barley.	Corn.
1846.....	1,950,527 bbls.	1,516,004 bush.	491,466 bush.*	1,238,646 bush.
1845.....	1,433,265	552,103	374,223	28,936
Increase.....	517,262	963,901	117,243	1,209,710

* Of this quantity about 160,000 bushels were received prior to the new crop coming into market. The increase in flour and wheat is equal to 719,042 barrels of flour.

These large quantities have been disposed of at advancing prices, and without being checked by that pernicious disposition to wait for a rise, which has so frequently spoiled the market, and ruined the operators. The large quantities that come down pass altogether out of the market, and leave it in a healthy state to receive future crops. The income of tolls on public works, the quantities transported, and the rise in prices since June, do not alone afford evidence of a fair state of prosperity. The dividends on banking institutions at the leading points, afford the same evidence. The Banks of Boston declare their dividends in April and October:—

BOSTON BANK DIVIDENDS.

Banks.	Capital.	October, 1844.		October, 1845.		April, 1846.		October, 1846.	
		p.ct.	Am't.	p.ct.	Am't.	p.ct.	Am't.	p.ct.	Am't.
Atlas.....	\$500,000	3	\$15,000	3	\$15,000	3	\$15,000	3	\$15,000
Atlantic.....	500,000	2½	12,500	3	15,000	3	15,000	3	15,000
Boston.....	600,000	3½	21,000	3½	21,000	3½	21,000	3½	21,000
*Boylston.....	150,000	5	7,500
City.....	1,500,000	2½	25,000	3	30,000	3	30,000	3	30,000
Columbian.....	500,000	3½	12,500	3	15,000	3	15,000	3	15,000
Eagle.....	500,000	3	15,000	3½	17,500	3½	17,500	3	15,000
Freeman's.....	200,000	3½	5,250	3½	5,250	4	8,000	4	8,000
Globe.....	1,000,000	3	30,000	3	30,000	3	30,000	3½	35,000
Granite.....	500,000	3	15,000	3	15,000	3½	17,500	3½	17,500
Hamilton.....	500,000	2½	12,500	3	15,000	3½	17,500	3½	17,500
Market.....	500,000	3	16,800	4	22,400	4½	25,200	4½	25,200
Massachusetts.....	800,000	2½	20,000	3	24,000	3	24,000	3	24,000
Mechanics'.....	120,000	3	4,500	3½	4,200	4	4,800	4	4,800
Merchants'.....	3,000,000	3	60,000	3½	87,500	3½	105,000	3½	105,000
New England.....	1,000,000	3	30,000	3	30,000	3	30,000	3	30,000
North.....	750,000	2½	18,750	3	22,500	3	22,500	3	22,500
Shawmut.....	500,000	2½	12,500	3	15,000	3½	17,500	3	15,000
Shoe & Leather Dealers'	500,000	3	15,000	3½	17,500	3½	17,500	4	20,000
State.....	1,800,000	2½	45,000	3	54,000	3	54,000	3	54,000
Suffolk.....	1,000,000	4	40,000	4	40,000	4	40,000	4	40,000
Traders'.....	400,000	3	12,000	3	12,000	3	12,000	3	12,000
Tremont.....	500,000	2½	12,500	3	15,000	3	15,000	3	15,000
Union.....	800,000	2½	20,000	3	24,000	3	24,000	3	24,000
Washington.....	500,000	2	10,000	3	15,000	3	15,000	3	15,000
	\$18,180,000		\$480,800		\$561,850		\$593,000		\$603,000

The results are as follows:—

CAPITALS AND DIVIDENDS.

	1844.		1845.		1846.	
	Capital.	Dividends.	Capital.	Dividends.	Capital.	Dividends.
April.....	\$17,480,000	\$426,300	\$17,480,000	\$550,250	\$18,180,000	\$593,000
October.....	17,480,000	480,000	17,480,000	561,850	18,180,000	603,000
Total....		\$906,300		\$1,112,100		\$1,196,000

In the year 1840, the dividends amounted to \$608,475, and in 1842, \$914,050. 1840 was the lowest point, and since, the Boston bank profits have increased \$297,525, or 35 per cent; and the dividends for the last half of 1846 were by far the largest of the series. The winter dividend, owing to manufacturing operations, is generally the largest. The New York bank dividends present similar results. They do not make their dividends all in the same month, as do the Boston institutions; but, generally speaking, the second dividend for the year has been the largest. The dividends are as follows:—

* The Boylston Bank is a new one, and its first dividend was in October for the year. The capital of the Freeman's Bank was increased \$50,000, and the Merchants' Bank, \$500,000.

NEW YORK BANK DIVIDENDS, 1845-46.

Banks.	Capital.	1845.		Am't.	1846.		Am't.
		1st div.	2d div.		1st div.	2d div.	
Bank of New York.....	\$1,000,000	4	4	\$20,000	4	4	\$40,000
Manhattan bank.....	2,050,000	3	3	61,500
Merchants'.....	1,490,000	4	4	119,200	4	4	59,600
Mechanics'.....	1,460,000	3½	4	108,000	4	4	57,600
Union.....	1,000,000	4	4	80,000	4	4	40,000
Bank of America.....	2,001,200	3	3	120,072	3	3½	70,842
City.....	720,000	3½	4	54,000	4	4	28,800
Phoenix.....	1,200,000	3	3	72,000	3	3	36,000
North River.....	655,000	3½	3½	45,850	3½	3½	22,925
Tradesmen's.....	400,000	5	5	40,000	5	5	20,000
Fulton.....	600,000	5	5	60,000	5	5	30,000
Butchers and Drovers'..	500,000	3½	4	37,500	4	5	25,000
Mechanics and Traders'.	200,000	3	3½	14,000	4	4	8,000
National.....	750,000	3	3½	48,750	3½	3½	26,250
Merchants' Exchange...	750,000	3	3	52,500	3	4	30,000
Leather Manufacturers'.	600,000	3	3	42,000	3	3½	21,000
Seventh Ward.....	500,000	3	3	30,000	3½	3½	17,500
State Bank of N. York..	2,000,000	3	3	120,000	3	3	60,000
Bank of Commerce.....	3,447,500	3	3	196,465	3	3	103,425
Mechanics' Bkg. Assoc...	639,000	3½	3½	44,940	4	4	25,280
American Exchange....	1,155,400	3	3	69,324	3	3	34,662
	\$23,084,100			\$1,433,901			\$798,528
							\$817,584

In addition to their dividends, the Butchers and Drovers' Bank declared 4 per cent, or \$20,000 extra, for a dividend omitted in 1842. The whole dividends amount to 7.09 per cent on the whole capital, and the amount is \$182,511 greater than in 1845, and the second dividend in 1846 is \$18,756 larger than the amount of the first dividend.

We have in all these items, the results of a regularly increasing prosperity. The panic fears which were partially excited during the session of Congress, were not, it appears, generally participated in. The great commercial interests were healthy and active, and the consequences are increased profits to capital and means of transportation; and this has been the case in the face of six months of "existing war." Notwithstanding all the fears engendered, both in relation to the continuance of the war, and its probable injurious influences, capital has been fairly employed, and labor in demand. A great support to confidence has been the prospect of the intercourse with England and Europe. There probably was never a time when a combination of circumstances conspired to throw, to such an extent, into the lap of the western country, the surplus wealth of England and Europe, in exchange for their produce. The large export of food that is taking place, with every appearance of continuing still to grow in magnitude, in the face of a disinclination to import, from various causes, may tend, for a season, to make the precious metals the best means of remittance. During the last three years, the exchanges have been remarkably steady, and the movement of specie either way has been unimportant. The following are quotations of exchange by each packet for the last three years:—

STERLING AND FRANCS IN NEW YORK.

	1843.		1844.		1845.	
	Ex. on Lond.	Ex. on Paris.	Ex. on Lond.	Ex. on Paris.	Ex. on Lond.	Ex. on Paris.
Sept'r 14.....	9½ @ 9½	5.23½ @ 5.22½	9½ @ 10	5.22½ @ 5.21½	9½ @ 10	5.23½ @ 5.22½
Sept'r 30.....	9½ @ 9½	5.25 @ 5.24	9½ @ 10	5.22½ @ 5.21½	9½ @ 10	5.25 @ 5.23½
Oct'r 15.....	9 @ 9½	5.26½ @ 5.25	9½ @ 10	5.22½ @ 5.21½	9½ @ 10	5.23½ @ 5.22½
Oct'r 31.....	8½ @ 8½	5.27½ @ 5.26½	9½ @ 10½	5.21½ @ 5.20	9½ @ 9½	5.26½ @ 5.25
Nov'r 15.....	7½ @ 7½	5.35 @ 5.32½	9½ @ 10½	5.21½ @ 5.20	8 @ 9	5.26½ @ 5.25
Nov'r 30.....	8 @ 8½	5.33½ @ 5.32	9½ @ 10	5.25 @ 5.22½	8½ @ 8½	5.27½ @ 5.26½
Dec'r 14.....	8½ @ 8½	5.33½ @ 5.32	9½ @ 10	5.22½ @ 5.21½	8 @ 8½	5.27½ @ 5.26½
Dec'r 31.....	9 @ 9½	5.27½ @ 5.26½	10 @ 10½	5.21½ @ 5.20	8 @ 9	5.26½ @ 5.25

STERLING AND FRANCS IN NEW YORK—CONTINUED.

	1844.		1845.		1846.	
	Ex. on Lond.	Ex. on Paris.	Ex. on Lond.	Ex. on Paris.	Ex. on Lond.	Ex. on Paris.
Jan'y 15.....	9 @ 9½	5.28 @ 5.27½	10 @ 10½	5.21 @ ...	8½ @ 8½	5.28 @ 5.26½
Jan'y 31.....	9 @ 9½	5.32 @ 5.30	9½ @ 10	5.23 @ 5.22½	8½ @ 8½	5.28 @ 5.27½
Feb'y 15.....	9 @ 9½	5.32 @ 5.30	9½ @ 10½	5.25 @ 5.23½	8½ @ 8½	5.28 @ 5.27½
Feb'y 28.....	8½ @ 9	5.30 @ 5.28½	9½ @ 10	5.25 @ 5.23½	8½ @ 8½	5.28 @ 5.27½
March 15.....	8½ @ 8½	5.31½ @ ...	9½ @ 10	5.25 @ 5.23½	8½ @ 9	5.37 @ 5.26½
March 31.....	8½ @ 8½	5.30 @ 5.27½	9½ @ 9½	5.25 @ 5.23½	9½ @ 10	5.25 @ 5.23½
April 15.....	8½ @ 8½	5.27½ @ ...	9½ @ 9½	5.26½ @ 5.25	9½ @ 9½	5.26½ @ 5.25
April 30.....	8½ @ 9	5.28 @ 5.27½	9½ @ 9½	5.26½ @ 5.25	9½ @ 10	5.26½ @ ...
May 15.....	8½ @ 9	5.27½ @ ...	9½ @ 9½	5.25 @ ...	9½ @ 10	5.28½ @ 5.27½
May 31.....	8½ @ 9½	5.26½ @ 5.25	9½ @ 10	5.25 @ ...	8½ @ 9	5.35 @ 5.32½
June 14.....	9 @ 9	5.26½ @ ...	9½ @ 10	5.26½ @ 5.25	7½ @ 8½	5.35 @ 5.32½
June 30.....	9 @ 9	5.26½ @ 5.25	9½ @ 10	5.20 @ 5.26½	7½ @ 8	5.36½ @ 5.35
July 15.....	9½ @ 9½	5.27½ @ 5.26½	9½ @ 10	5.21 @ 5.27½	7½ @ 7½	5.40 @ 5.37½
July 31.....	9½ @ 9½	5.26½ @ 5.25	10 @ 10½	5.27½ @ 5.25	7½ @ 7½	5.40 @ 5.37½
Aug't 15.....	9½ @ 10	5.25 @ 5.22½	10 @ 10½	5.25 @ ...	7½ @ 8	5.40 @ 5.37½
Aug't 30.....	9½ @ 10	5.22½ @ ...	9½ @ 10½	5.25 @ 5.23½	8½ @ 9	5.31½ @ 5.30

For the five months, ending with September, last year, the export of specie was some \$1,200,000. It has this year been but \$400,000. The rate of exchange, which usually rises towards the close of the year, when cotton bills become short, this year declined under the influence of the diminished import above alluded to, and the increase of produce bills of other descriptions. The foreign prices of all descriptions of produce are now advancing, with every prospect of large sales; and, as money is cheap, and specie plenty in London, while goods are falling here, a renewed import of the precious metals may reasonably be looked for.

It is a remarkable fact that, notwithstanding the vast extension of commerce all over the world, the great increase of industrial pursuits in Europe, requiring the use of capital, and the enormous expenditures of money in the construction of railroads, that the quantity of the precious metals collecting at the great central reservoirs, say London, Paris, New York, and New Orleans, are vastly greater than ever before, and money, at all points, is unusually cheap. At a late date, the Bank of France held \$45,000,000, mostly silver; the Bank of England, £13,499,102 of gold, and £2,676,788 of silver. The Scotch and Irish Bank is £3,413,183 of gold and silver, together, £19,589,073, or \$97,945,365 of the precious metals. The New York banks held \$8,000,000, and the New Orleans banks \$6,000,000, making altogether, at four commercial cities, \$158,945,365 of the precious metals, not in use, but reposing in bank vaults! while money is unusually cheap. The failure of the harvests in Europe, and the superabundance in the United States of the produce of which they stand in need, must, of necessity, disturb the usual current of business, and probably lead to a large import of the idle masses of coin that now repose in the banks. The supply of the metals is also continually increasing. In the months of June and July, \$10,000,000 of Russian gold arrived at London, and assisted to swell the already large amounts held by the bank. A large portion of that gold was sent to pay the dividends due in Holland on the Russian debt, and, being sent to London, where it was most valuable, was drawn against in favor of Amsterdam. The whole aspect of commerce is that of a large and prosperous business, with an unusual abundance of money in the United States.

The progress of business at New Orleans, is strikingly illustrated in the following table, compiled from the annual returns given in the New Orleans Price Current:—

QUANTITY AND VALUE OF LEADING ARTICLES RECEIVED AT NEW ORLEANS, SEPTEMBER 1ST.

1841.				1844.			
	Quantity.	Value.		Quantity.	Value.		
Corn,.....bbls. and sacks,	579,375	\$358,134		525,386	\$907,145		
Bacon,.....hhds. and tierces,	9,220	230,500		38,633	1,042,175		
Bagging,.....pieces,	60,307	783,991		100,216	1,002,160		
Flour,.....bbls.,	439,688	2,198,440		502,507	2,018,028		
Beef,....."	17,445	82,863		49,363	222,132		
Hemp,.....bdls.,	1,211	18,166		38,062	418,682		
Lead,.....pigs,	472,566	1,039,629		639,269	1,374,428		
Molasses,.....galls.,	2,205,000	450,000		5,000,000	1,000,000		
Sugar,.....hhds.,	90,000	3,600,000		140,316	8,418,966		
Tobacco,....."	54,855	2,136,645		70,435	2,817,400		
Pork,.....bbls. and hhds.,	245,388	1,441,172		421,728	2,864,112		
Cotton,.....bales,	740,155	25,425,115		910,854	29,147,328		
All other,.....		8,846,397			15,131,473		
Total,.....		\$46,631,052			\$66,364,029		

1845.				1846.			
	Quantity.	Value.		Quantity.	Value.		
Corn,.....bbls. and sacks,	530,650	\$404,953		1,524,693	\$1,556,181		
Bacon,.....hhds. and tierces,	21,250	890,270		25,213	1,008,520		
Bagging,.....pieces,	111,324	1,113,240		96,601	917,710		
Flour,.....bbls.,	533,312	2,134,248		837,985	3,770,932		
Beef,....."				36,017	234,110		
Hemp,.....bdls.,	46,174	462,270		30,980	309,800		
Lead,.....pigs,	732,125	1,618,455		785,394	1,963,484		
Molasses,.....galls.,	9,000,000	1,260,000		9,000,000	1,710,000		
Sugar,.....hhds.,	200,000	9,000,000		186,650	10,265,750		
Tobacco,....."	64,093	2,884,185		57,896	2,605,320		
Pork,.....bbls. and hhds.,	223,701	2,379,246		379,589	3,276,424		
Cotton,.....bales,	979,238	23,501,712		1,053,633	33,716,256		
All other,.....		11,550,543			15,859,037		
Total,.....		\$57,199,122			\$77,183,524		

From this table, it appears that, of an increase of \$33,000,000 in the annual value received at New Orleans, by river, cotton is but \$7,000,000. The remainder is of general farm produce, of which Indian corn has reached a value of \$1,556,181, or five times that of 1841. Cotton, from being near 60 per cent of the whole value, has fallen to 45 per cent of whole value, notwithstanding that it has increased 50 per cent. The sugar crop has become equal in value to one-third of the cotton crop. The new impulse given to shipments by the state of affairs in Europe, will eminently tend to develop this feature of New Orleans trade. It is observable that the banking movement at that point is very much disproportioned to the rapid growth of its business, and the banks have kept on hand, for the last few years, an amount of specie far in excess of their circulation.

This feature of the great amount of specie held by the banks in all commercial countries in proportion to their circulation, would indicate a much less amount of credit transactions. That is to say, that the bulk of business, being the actual transfer of valuable commodities from hand to hand, represented by bona fide individual bills, the latter are cancelled nearly as fast as they are created. The channels of retail trade are well supplied with money. The amount of the latter required, is, perhaps, less all over the world, by reason of the ruling low prices. In all minor individual transactions, money is required. In wholesale transactions, individual bills effect the transfer. When prices are low, much less money is required by an individual for his private use than when prices are high. This may account for large apparent commerce, with small demand for money.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

THE NEW RUSSIAN TARIFF.

THE following is a table of the imported and exported articles of merchandise, at the entrance or at the exportation of which the custom-house duties are lessened, or entirely repealed; also of merchandise prohibited up to the present day, the admission of which is now authorized:—

MERCHANDISE FOR EXPORTATION.

	Silver. R. C.
Flax, combed and uncombed, by sea and by land,.....	0 75
Hemp, combed and uncombed, per berkovitz,.....	0 50
Tallow, of all kinds,.....	1 0
Common bones of all sorts, bleached and unbleached,.....	Free.

IMPORTED MERCHANDISE.

Anchovies and sardines, per pound,.....	2 0
Antimony, red sulphate of,.....	4 0
Capers,.....	0 50
Cardamon seeds and grains of Paradise,.....	5 0
Carmine, per pound,.....	2 0
Cloths of particular fabric, and cloths mixed with cotton,.....	0 25
Cloths employed in oil-mills,.....	0 25
Cloves,.....	7 50
Cochineal,.....	8 0
Cocoa, in bean and in husk, per poud,.....	3 0
Coffee,.....	3 70
Cinnamon and cinnamon flower, wild cinnamon, cloves, and wild honey, per poud,.....	5 0
Coral, manufactured,.....	0 50
Crustaceous and all shell fish, per pound,.....	6 0
Cudbear,.....	1 50
Fish, salted or prepared, with the exception of herrings, anchovies, and sardines, per pound,.....	2 50
Gauzes and crapes,.....	10 0
Indigo, under its denominations known in Russia, per poud,.....	3 50
Indigo powder, per poud,.....	5 0
Laces, <i>entoilages</i> of all kinds, per poud,.....	6 0
Lacker dye,.....	3 50
Maccaroni of all kinds, per poud,.....	3 0
Mace, per pound,.....	10 0
Mushrooms, pickled or unpickled,.....	6 50
Native purified mineral alkali—phosphate of soda, per poud,.....	0 30
Nutmegs, per pound,.....	9 0
Ostrich feathers and plumes of all kinds for hats, dyed or undyed, marabout feathers, birds of Paradise, and others of the same kind, plumes for officers, with the box,.....	10 0
Patés of all kinds, with their pans, per pound,.....	0 60
Pearls, manufactured, composition, glass, metal, iris root, and ear pendants, &c.,.....	0 50
Pepper, English and Jamaica, and cubebs,.....	2 50
Platina, wrought, except when used in arts or manufactures, an ad valorem duty,.....	0 35
Pomatums of all kinds, per pound,.....	2 0
Pottery, gilded, silvered, bordered, painted, or in bas-reliefs of different colors, and variegated of all kinds,.....	9 0
Ware of this kind, which will be imported to part of 1847, shall not pay more than 6 silver roubles per pound.	
Pottery and Fayence, white, or of single colors, without gold, or silver, or design, per poud,.....	3 49½
Pottery-ware of this kind, which will be imported to part of 1847, will not pay more than 2 roubles 32½ silver copecks per pound.	

Quercitron bark, per pound,.....	0 25
Red sandal of Brazil, or wood of Pernambuco, Campeachy wood, or blue sandal, Japan, or Sapan wood, and wood of the same kind, under various other names, in blocks or chips, per berkovitz,.....	0 80
The same in dust,.....	3 50
Rocon, per pound,.....	0 75
Saffron, per pound,.....	0 40
Saffron, bastard, per pound,.....	0 75
Sago, per pound,.....	1 50
Silks, <i>entailages</i> ,.....	12 0
Soda, carbonate of, crystallized, per pound,.....	0 30
Soy, and other similar preparations, in bottles,.....	0 30
Vanilla, per pound,.....	0 35
Verdigris, per pound,.....	8 0
Extracts of different woods for dyeing, per pound,.....	3 50
Woollen fabrics of different kinds, per pound,.....	2 80
Yellow sandal, sumac, fustic, and other woods of yellow dye, not otherwise named, in blocks and chips,.....	0 80
The same in dust,.....	3 50

DUTY FREE.

Marble and bronze antiquities, of all sizes.

Ornamental marbles of all colors, such as chimney-pieces, vases, lamps, monuments of all kinds, when they are works of art, and have ornaments sculptured upon them, or fastened upon them in bronze.

Platina, in all its forms.

Platina vases and instruments of platinum used in workshops. The exportation of platinum, in all its forms, is duty free through all the custom-houses of the empire.

Sculptured objects of all kinds, in ivory, wood, or metal, and works of art in baked clay.

Works in sculpture of modern artists, such as statues, busts, bas-reliefs, in marble or bronze, with their pedestals, if the latter are altogether or partially sculptured.

The free importation of all those objects of art mentioned in the foregoing paragraphs is only permitted by the custom-house of St. Petersburg. In cases of doubt as to whether the articles to be introduced really belong to the category of works of art, the decision will be left to the Academy of Fine Arts, who, for that purpose, shall be invited to assist in the examination of the said objects.

The present table will be put in force at the time of its reception at each custom-house.

Imported merchandise deposited in the custom-houses which have not paid the duty on the day of the reception of the present table, will be released on the payment of the duties above mentioned.

The operation of the present table, except so far as it affects platinum, for which there is a special proviso, extends to all the custom-houses and barriers where the tariff of the 28th of November, 1841, for the regulation of the commerce of the empire with Europe, is in force.

SPANISH IMPORT DUTIES ON COTTON.

The following royal ordonnance, modifying the import duties on cotton, has just been promulgated by the Spanish government:—

Art. 1. Cotton from foreign ports and colonies, which are not places of production, will continue to pay the present duty.

2. Cotton coming direct from the foreign ports where it is produced, will pay a customs duty of 5 per cent on the valuation of 256 reals the quintal.

3. If a vessel arriving at the Havana, or at Puerto Rico, demand the depot of their cargo without discharging, it shall be granted, on paying a duty of 1 per cent, and the same amount on leaving, and a duty of 3 per cent at the port of its destination.

4. Cotton coming from the Spanish colonies, and of Spanish production, will continue to pay the present duty.

5. The preceding provisions only relate to cotton imported in Spanish bottoms; cotton in foreign vessels will continue to pay the duties hitherto levied.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY AND FINANCE.

CURIOUS FACTS IN RELATION TO COLONIAL CURRENCY.

COMPILED FROM AUTHENTIC SOURCES FOR THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

MASSACHUSETTS.

- 1652—Silver shillings, sixpences, threepences, coined at the rate of six shillings to a heavy piece of eight.
- 1706—The courts of judicature chancered silver to eight shillings per ounce, in satisfaction of debts, being nearly at the rate of six shillings to a light piece of eight.
- 1729—Province Bills worth twenty-nine shillings to the silver ounce.
- 1690-1—First emission of Province Bills, to pay expenses of the expedition to Canada.
- 1691—£10,000 of Province Bills cancelled and burnt.
- 1701—£9,000 of Province Bills re-emitted.
- 1701—Bills of this period were called "Old Charter Bills," and were at the rate of six shillings to a heavy piece of eight.
- 1702—New emission to be cancelled by taxes in two years. 1704, time extended two years; 1707, three years; 1709, four years; 1710, five years; 1711, six years; 1715, seven years; 1721, twelve years; 1722, thirteen years.
- 1729—Exchange with Great Britain, 450 per cent advance, or five and a half New England for one sterling.

RHODE ISLAND.

- 1710—First emission of Province Bills towards defraying expenses of expedition against Port Royal, in Nova Scotia.
- 1715—Exchange with Great Britain, 65 per cent.
- 1738—Exchange with Great Britain, 400 per cent advance.

CONNECTICUT.

- 1709—First emission of Colony Bills.

VIRGINIA.

- 1680—Value of silver coin altered by Lord Culpepper, to defraud an English regiment.
- 1739—Ounce of silver worth six shillings eightpence; ounce of gold £5.

NORTH CAROLINA.

- 1739—£40,000 outstanding upon loan, and £12,500 upon funds of taxes. Exchange at 10 North Carolina for 1 sterling; in drawing upon London, 12 to 14 for 1 sterling.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

- 1702—First emission towards defraying expenses of expedition against St. Augustine.
- 1711—Emission for expedition against North Carolina Indians.
- 1715—Emission for expedition against Southern Indians.
- 1739—About £250,000 outstanding. Exchange with Great Britain, 8 South Carolina for 1 sterling.

THE UNITED STATES SUB-TREASURY BILL.

The following is an official copy of the act passed at the last session of Congress, "to provide for the collection, safekeeping, transfer, and disbursement of the public revenue." It was approved by the President of the United States, August 5th, 1846.

AN ACT TO PROVIDE FOR THE BETTER ORGANIZATION OF THE TREASURY, AND FOR THE COLLECTION, SAFEKEEPING, TRANSFER, AND DISBURSEMENT OF THE PUBLIC REVENUE.

Whereas, by the fourth section of the act entitled "An act to establish the Treasury Department," approved September two, seventeen hundred and eighty-nine, it was provided that it should be the duty of the Treasurer to receive and keep the moneys of the United States, and to disburse the same upon warrants drawn by the Secretary of the Treasury, countersigned by the Comptroller, and recorded by the Register, and not otherwise; and whereas it is found necessary to make further provisions to enable the Treasurer the better to carry into effect the intent of the said section in relation to the receiving and disbursing the moneys of the United States:

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the rooms prepared and provided in the new treasury building at the seat of government for the use of the Treasurer of the United States, his assistants, and clerks, and occupied by them, and also the fire-proof vaults and safes erected in said rooms for the keeping of the public moneys in the possession and under the immediate control of said Treasurer, and such other apartments as are provided for in this act as places of deposit of the public money, are hereby constituted and declared to be, the treasury of the United States. And all moneys paid into the same shall be subject to the draft of the Treasurer, drawn agreeably to appropriations made by law.

§ 2. *And be it further enacted,* That the mint of the United States, in the city of Philadelphia, in the State of Pennsylvania, and the branch mint in the city of New Orleans, in the State of Louisiana, and the vaults and safes thereof, respectively shall be places of deposit and safekeeping of the public moneys at those points, respectively; and the treasurer of the said mint and branch mint, respectively, for the time being, shall be assistant treasurers under the provisions of this act, and shall have the custody and care of all public moneys deposited within the same, and shall perform all the duties required to be performed by them, in reference to the receipt, safekeeping, transfer, and disbursements of all such moneys, according to the provisions hereinafter contained.

§ 3. *And be it further enacted,* That the rooms which were directed to be prepared and provided within the custom-houses in the city of New York, in the State of New York, and in the city of Boston, in the State of Massachusetts, for the use of receivers general of public moneys, under the provisions of the act entitled "An act to provide for the collection, safekeeping, transfer, and disbursement of the public revenue," approved July fourth, eighteen hundred and forty, shall be for the use of the assistant treasurers hereinafter directed to be appointed at those places, respectively; as shall be also the fire-proof vaults and safes prepared and provided within said rooms for the keeping of public moneys collected and deposited with them, respectively; and the assistant treasurers, from time to time appointed at those points, shall have the custody and care of the said rooms, vaults, and safes, respectively, and of all the public moneys deposited within the same, and shall perform all the duties required to be performed by them, in reference to the receipt, safekeeping, transfer, and disbursements of all such moneys, according to the provisions of this act.

§ 4. *And be it further enacted,* That the offices, with suitable and convenient rooms, which were directed to be erected, prepared, and provided for the use of the receivers general of public money, at the expense of the United States, at the city of Charleston, in the State of South Carolina, and at the city of St. Louis, in the State of Missouri, under the act entitled "An act to provide for the collection, safekeeping, transfer, and disbursement of the public revenue," approved July fourth, eighteen hundred and forty, shall be for the use of the assistant treasurers hereinafter directed to be appointed at the places above named; as shall be also the fire-proof vaults and safes, erected within the said offices and rooms, for the keeping of the public money collected and deposited at those points, respectively; the said assistant treasurers, from time to time appointed at those places, shall have the custody and care of the said offices, vaults, and safes, erected, prepared, and provided as aforesaid, and of all the public moneys deposited within the same, and shall perform all the duties required to be performed by them, in reference to the receipt, safekeeping, transfer, and disbursement of all such moneys, according to the provisions hereinafter contained.

§ 5. *And be it further enacted,* That the President shall nominate, and, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, appoint four officers, to be denominated assistant treasurers of the United States, which said officers shall hold their respective offices for the term of four years, unless sooner removed therefrom; one of which shall be located at the city of New York, in the State of New York; one other of which shall be located at the city of Boston, in the State of Massachusetts; one other of which shall be located at the city of Charleston, in the State of South Carolina; and one other at St. Louis, in the State of Missouri. And all of which said officers shall give bonds to the United States, with sureties, according to the provisions hereinafter contained, for the faithful discharge of the duties of their respective offices.

§ 6. *And be it further enacted,* That the treasurer of the United States, the treasurer of the mint of the United States, the treasurers, and those acting as such, of the various branch mints, all collectors of the customs, all surveyors of the customs acting also as collectors, all assistant treasurers, all receivers of public moneys at the several land offices, all post-masters, and all public officers of whatsoever character, be, and they are hereby required to keep safely, without loaning, using, depositing in banks, or exchanging for other funds than as allowed by this act, all the public money collected by them, or otherwise, at any time, placed in their possession and custody, till the same is ordered, by the proper department or officer of the government, to be transferred or paid out: and when such orders for transfer or payment are received, faithfully and promptly to make the same as directed, and to do and perform all other duties as fiscal agents of the government which may be imposed by this or any other acts of Congress, or by any regulation of the Treasury Department made in conformity to law; and, also, to do and perform all acts and duties required by law, or by direction of any of the executive departments of the government, as agents for paying pensions, or for making any other disbursements which either of the heads of those departments may be required by law to

make, and which are of a character to be made by the depositaries hereby constituted, consistently with the other official duties imposed upon them.

§ 7. *And be it further enacted*, That the treasurer of the United States, the treasurer of the mint of the United States, the treasurer of the branch mint at New Orleans, and all the assistant treasurers hereinbefore directed to be appointed, shall respectively give bonds to the United States faithfully to discharge the duties of their respective offices according to law, and for such amounts as shall be directed by the Secretary of the Treasury, with sureties to the satisfaction of the Solicitor of the Treasury; and shall, from time to time, renew, strengthen, and increase their official bonds, as the Secretary of the Treasury may direct, any law in reference to any of the official bonds of any of the said officers to the contrary notwithstanding.

§ 8. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury, at as early a day as possible after the passage of this act, to require from the several depositaries hereby constituted, and whose official bonds are not hereinbefore provided for, to execute bonds, new and suitable in their terms, to meet the new and increased duties imposed upon them, respectively, by this act, and with sureties and in sums such as shall seem reasonable and safe to the Solicitor of the Treasury; and, from time to time, to require such bonds to be renewed and increased in amount, and strengthened by new sureties, to meet any increasing responsibility which may grow out of accumulations of money in the hands of the depositary, or out of any other duty or responsibility arising under this or any other law of Congress.

§ 9. *And be it further enacted*, That all collectors and receivers of public money, of every character and description, within the District of Columbia, shall, as frequently as they may be directed by the Secretary of the Treasury, or the Postmaster General, so to do, pay over to the Treasurer of the United States, at the treasury, all public moneys collected by them, or in their hands; that all such collectors and receivers of public moneys within the cities of Philadelphia and New Orleans shall, upon the same direction, pay over to the treasurers of the mints in their respective cities, at the said mints, all public moneys collected by them, or in their hands; and that all such collectors and receivers of public moneys within the cities of New York, Boston, Charleston, and St. Louis, shall, upon the same direction, pay over to the assistant treasurers in their respective cities, at their offices, respectively, all the public moneys collected by them, or in their hands, to be safely kept by the said respective depositaries until otherwise disposed of according to law; and it shall be the duty of the said Secretary and Postmaster General respectively to direct such payments by the said collectors and receivers at all the said places, at least as often as once in each week, and as much more frequently, in all cases, as they in their discretion may think proper.

§ 10. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be lawful for the Secretary of the Treasury to transfer the moneys in the hands of any depositary hereby constituted, to the treasury of the United States, to be there safely kept, to the credit of the Treasurer of the United States, according to the provisions of this act; and, also, to transfer moneys in the hands of any one depositary constituted by this act, to any other depositary constituted by the same, at his discretion, and as the safety of the public moneys, and the convenience of the public service shall seem to him to require; which authority to transfer the moneys belonging to the Post-Office Department is also hereby conferred upon the Postmaster General, so far as its exercise by him may be consistent with the provisions of existing laws; and every depositary constituted by this act shall keep his account of the money paid to or deposited with him, belonging to the Post-Office Department, separate and distinct from the account kept by him of other public moneys so paid or deposited. And for the purpose of payments on the public account, it shall be lawful for the Treasurer of the United States to draw upon any of the said depositaries, as he may think most conducive to the public interests, or to the convenience of the public creditors, or both. And each depositary so drawn upon shall make returns to the Treasury and Post-Office Departments of all moneys received and paid by him, at such times and in such form as shall be directed by the Secretary of the Treasury or the Postmaster General.

§ 11. *And be it further enacted*, That the Secretary of the Treasury shall be, and he is hereby, authorized to cause examinations to be made of the books, accounts, and money on hand, of the several depositaries constituted by this act; and for that purpose to appoint special agents, as occasion may require, with such compensation, not exceeding six dollars per day and travelling expenses, as he may think reasonable, to be fixed and declared at the time of each appointment. The agents selected to make these examinations shall be instructed to examine as well the books, accounts, and returns of the officer, as the money on hand, and the manner of its being kept, to the end that uniformity and accuracy in the accounts, as well as safety to the public moneys, may be secured thereby.

§ 12. *And be it further enacted*, That in addition to the examinations provided for in the last preceding section, and as a further guard over the public moneys, it shall be the duty of each naval officer and surveyor, as a check upon the assistant treasurer, or the collector of the customs, of their respective districts; of each register of a land office, as a check upon the receiver of his land office; and of the director and superintendent of each mint and branch mint, when separate offices, as a check upon the treasurers, respectively, of the said mints, or the persons acting as such, at the close of each quarter of the year, and as much more frequently as they shall be directed by the Secretary of the Treasury to do so, to examine the books, accounts, returns, and money on hand, of the assistant treasurers, collectors, receivers of land offices, treasurers of the mint and each branch mint,

and persons acting as such, and to make a full, accurate and faithful return to the Treasury department of their condition.

§ 13. *And be it further enacted*, That the said officers, respectively, whose duty it is made, by this act, to receive, keep, and disburse the public moneys, as the fiscal agents of the government, may be allowed any necessary additional expenses for clerks, fire-proof chests, or vaults, or other necessary expenses of safekeeping, transferring and disbursing said moneys; all such expenses of every character to be first expressly authorized by the Secretary of the Treasury, whose directions upon all the above subjects, by way of regulation and otherwise, so far as authorized by law, are to be strictly followed by all the said officers: *Provided*, That the whole number of clerks to be appointed by virtue of this section of this act shall not exceed ten; and that the aggregate compensations of the whole number shall not exceed sixteen thousand dollars, nor shall the compensation of any one clerk so appointed exceed eight hundred dollars per annum.

§ 14. *And be it further enacted*, That the Secretary of the Treasury may, at his discretion, transfer the balances remaining with any of the present depositaries, to any other of the present depositaries, as he may deem the safety of the public money or the public convenience may require: *Provided*, That nothing in this act shall be so construed as to authorize the Secretary of the Treasury to transfer the balances remaining with any of the present depositaries, to the depositaries constituted by this act, before the first day of January next. *And provided that*, for the purpose of payments on public account, out of balances remaining with the present depositaries, it shall be lawful for the Treasurer of the United States to draw upon any of the said depositaries as he may think most conducive to the public interests, or to the convenience of the public creditors, or both.

§ 15. *And be it further enacted*, That all marshals, district attorneys, and others having public money to pay to the United States, and all patentees wishing to make payment for patents to be issued, may pay all such moneys to the Treasurer of the United States, to the treasurer of either of the mints in Philadelphia or New Orleans, to either of the other assistant treasurers, or to such other depositary constituted by this act as shall be designated by the Secretary of the Treasury in other parts of the United States to receive such payments, and give receipts or certificates of deposit therefor.

§ 16. *And be it further enacted*, That all officers and other persons charged by this act, or any other act, with the safekeeping, transfer, and disbursement of the public moneys, other than those connected with the Post-Office Department, are hereby required to keep an accurate entry of each sum received, and of each payment or transfer, and that if any one of the said officers, or of those connected with the Post-Office Department, shall convert to his own use, in any way whatever, or shall use, by way of investment in any kind of property or merchandise, or shall loan, with or without interest, or shall deposit in any bank, or shall exchange for other funds except as allowed by this act, any portion of the public moneys entrusted to him for safekeeping, disbursement, transfer, or for any other purpose, every such act shall be deemed and adjudged to be an embezzlement of so much of the said moneys, as shall be thus taken, converted, invested, used, loaned, deposited, or exchanged, which is hereby declared to be a felony; and any failure to pay over or to produce the public moneys entrusted to such person, shall be held and taken to be *prima facie* evidence of such embezzlement; and if any officer charged with the disbursement of public moneys shall accept or receive, or transmit to the Treasury Department to be allowed in his favor, any receipt or voucher from a creditor of the United States, without having paid to such creditor, in such funds as the said officer may have received for disbursement, or such other funds as he may be authorized by this act to take in exchange, the full amount specified in such receipt or voucher, every such act shall be deemed to be a conversion by such officer to his own use of the amount specified in such receipt or voucher; and any officer or agent of the United States, and all persons advising or participating in such act, being convicted thereof before any court of the United States of competent jurisdiction, shall be sentenced to imprisonment for a term of not less than six months nor more than ten years, and to a fine equal to the amount of the money embezzled. And upon the trial of any indictment against any person for embezzling public money, under the provisions of this act, it shall be sufficient evidence for the purpose of showing a balance against such person, to produce a transcript from the books and proceedings of the treasury, as required in civil cases, under the provisions of the act entitled, "An act to provide more effectually for the settlement of accounts between the United States and receivers of public money," approved March third, one thousand seven hundred and ninety-seven; and the provisions of this act shall be so construed as to apply to all persons charged with the safe-keeping, transfer, or disbursement of the public money, whether such persons be indicted as receivers or depositaries of the same; and the refusal of such person, whether in or out of office, to pay any draft, order, or warrant, which may be drawn upon him by the proper officer of the Treasury Department for any public money in his hands belonging to the United States, no matter in what capacity the same may have been received or may be held, or to transfer or disburse any such money promptly, upon the legal requirement of any authorized officer of the United States, shall be deemed and taken, upon the trial of any indictment against such person for embezzlement, as *prima facie* evidence of such embezzlement.

§ 17. *And be it further enacted*, That until the rooms, offices, vaults, and safes, directed by the first four sections of this act to be constructed and prepared for the use of the Treasurer of the United States, the treasurers of the mints at Philadelphia and New Orleans,

and the assistant treasurers at New York, Boston, Charleston, and St. Louis, can be constructed and prepared for use, it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to procure suitable rooms for offices for those officers at their respective locations, and to contract for such use of vaults and safes as may be required for the safekeeping of the public moneys in the charge and custody of those officers, respectively; the expense to be paid by the United States.

And whereas, by the thirtieth section of the act entitled "An act to regulate the collection of duties imposed by law on the tonnage of ships or vessels, and on goods, wares, and merchandises imported into the United States," approved July thirty-one, seventeen hundred and eighty-nine, it was provided that all fees and dues collected by virtue of that act should be received in gold and silver coin only: and whereas also, by the fifth section of the act, approved May ten, eighteen hundred, entitled "An act to amend the act entitled 'An act providing for the sale of the lands of the United States in the territory northwest of the Ohio, and above the mouth of Kentucky river,'" it was provided that payment for the said lands shall be made by all purchasers in specie, or in evidences of the public debt; and whereas experience has proved that said provisions ought to be revived and enforced, according to the true and wise intent of the constitution of the United States—

§ 18. *And be it further enacted*, That, on the first day of January, in the year one thousand eight hundred and forty-seven, and thereafter, all duties, taxes, sales of public lands, debts, and sums of money accruing or becoming due to the United States, and also all sums due for postages, or otherwise, to the General Post-Office Department, shall be paid in gold and silver coin only, or in treasury notes issued under the authority of the United States: *Provided*, That the Secretary of the Treasury shall publish, monthly, in two newspapers at the city of Washington, the amount of specie at the several places of deposit, the amount of treasury notes or drafts issued, and the amount outstanding on the last day of each month.

§ 19. *And be it further enacted*, That on the first day of April, one thousand eight hundred and forty-seven, and thereafter, every officer or agent engaged in making disbursements on account of the United States, or of the General Post-Office, shall make all payments in gold and silver coin, or in treasury notes, if the creditor agree to receive said notes in payment; and any receiving or disbursing officer or agent who shall neglect, evade, or violate the provisions of this and the last preceding section of this act, shall, by the Secretary of the Treasury, be immediately reported to the President of the United States, with the facts of such neglect, evasion, or violation; and also to Congress if in session; and if not in session, at the commencement of its session next after the violation takes place.

§ 20. *And be it further enacted*, That no exchange of funds shall be made by any disbursing officers or agents of the government, of any grade or denomination whatsoever, or connected with any branch of the public service, other than an exchange for gold and silver; and every such disbursing officer, when the means for his disbursements are furnished to him in gold and silver, shall make his payments in the money so furnished; or when those means are furnished to him in drafts, shall cause those drafts to be presented at their place of payment, and properly paid according to the law; and shall make his payment in the money so received for the drafts furnished, unless, in either case, he can exchange the means in his hands for gold and silver at par. And it shall be, and is hereby, made the duty of the head of the department immediately to suspend from duty any disbursing officer who shall violate the provisions of this section, and forthwith to report the name of the officer or agent to the President, with the fact of the violation, and all the circumstances accompanying the same, and within the knowledge of the said Secretary, to the end that such officer or agent may be promptly removed from office, or restored to his trust and the performance of his duties, as to the President may seem just and proper: *Provided, however*, That those disbursing officers having at present, credits in the banks, shall, until the first day of January next, be allowed to check on the same, allowing the public creditors to receive their pay from the banks, either in specie or bank notes.

§ 21. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to issue and publish regulations to enforce the speedy presentation of all government drafts for payment at the place where payable, and to prescribe the time, according to the different distances of the depositories from the seat of government, within which all drafts upon them, respectively, shall be presented for payment; and, in default of such presentation, to direct any other mode and place of payment which he may deem proper; but, in all these regulations and directions, it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to guard, as far as may be, against those drafts being used or thrown into circulation as a paper currency, or medium of exchange. And no officer of the United States shall, either directly or indirectly, sell or dispose to any person or persons, or corporations, whatsoever, for a premium, any treasury note, draft, warrant, or other public security, not his private property, or sell or dispose of the avails or proceeds of such note, draft, warrant or security in his hands for disbursement, without making return of such premium, and accounting therefor by charging the same in his accounts to the credit of the United States; and any officer violating this section shall be forthwith dismissed from office.

§ 22. *And be it further enacted*, That the assistant treasurers directed by this act to be appointed, shall receive, respectively, the following salaries per annum, to be paid quarterly at the treasury of the United States, to wit: the assistant treasurer at New York

shall be paid a salary of four thousand dollars per annum; the assistant treasurer at Boston shall be paid a salary of two thousand five hundred dollars per annum; the assistant treasurer at Charleston shall be paid a salary of two thousand five hundred dollars per annum; the assistant treasurer at St. Louis shall be paid a salary of two thousand five hundred dollars per annum; the treasurer of the mint at Philadelphia shall, in addition to his present salary, receive five hundred dollars annually, for the performance of the duties imposed by this act; the treasurer of the branch mint at New Orleans shall also receive five hundred dollars annually, for the additional duties created by this act; and these salaries, respectively, shall be in full for the services of the respective officers, nor shall either of them be permitted to charge or receive any commission, pay or perquisite, for any official service, of any character or description whatsoever; and the making of any such charge, or the receipt of any such compensation, is hereby declared to be a misdemeanor, for which the officer convicted thereof, before any court of the United States of competent jurisdiction, shall be subject to punishment by fine, or imprisonment, or both, at the discretion of the court before which the offence shall be tried.

§ 23. *And be it further enacted*, That there shall be, and hereby is appropriated, to be paid out of any money in the treasury not otherwise appropriated, the sum of five thousand dollars, to be expended under the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, in such repairs or additions as may be necessary to put in good condition for use, with as little delay as may be consistent with the public interests, the offices, rooms, vaults, and safes herein mentioned, and in the purchase of any necessary additional furniture and fixtures, in the purchase of necessary books and stationery, and in defraying any other incidental expenses necessary to carry this act into effect.

§ 24. *And be it further enacted*, That all acts or parts of acts which come in conflict with the provisions of this act, be, and the same are hereby repealed.

APPROVED, August 6th, 1846.

STATISTICS OF POPULATION.

PROGRESS OF POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

TABULAR VIEW OF THE PROGRESSIVE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES, FROM THE ORIGINAL CENSUS OF 1790 UNTIL 1901, BY WM. DAREY, AUTHOR OF A "UNIVERSAL GAZETTEER."*

The first idea of constructing such a table, was suggested by the results of a process undertaken from mere curiosity. That process was performed by taking the sum of the first census of 1790, and allowing an increment of 3 per cent annually; thus, 3,929,827, in ten consecutive operations on the principle assumed, gave, for 1800, 5,281,468, which differed only 23,457 in deficit from the actual returns by the census of the latter year. I then carried on the process up to 1840, and found as shown by the subjoined table. The thought was then excited to construct a centennial table.

It must be obvious to any person moderately acquainted with the subject, that, in such a case, no rule can be made absolute; nor is it of primary importance that positive accuracy as to numbers should, were it practicable, be obtained. The very remarkable fact developed by the middle column must excite surprise in the first exhibition, but must also secure confidence in the general results. This column is based entirely on the original sum of 3,929,827, without any regard to the intermediate decennial enumerations.

The first, or left hand column, contains the decennial returns by the census, with the ratios of increase during the terms, up to 1840. The mean ratio during the fifty years, from 1790 to 1840, inclusive, comes out to a very near fraction, 4.342. This ratio was then used to deduce the decennial numbers through the subsequent half century.

Even well-informed persons, but who have not paid particular attention to the subject, may be excusably startled when they read the future increase and enormous mass of population stated opposite the year 1901, at the foot of either column. The tables, however, contain internal evidence of accuracy as far as the nature of the case can admit, and especially by showing that, in the previous half century to 1840, the population had more than quadrupled. Further, that the so established increase was made under difficulties, some of which are removed, and all lessened in their deteriorating effects; whilst, on the other side, facilities of transportation by land and water, by steam, roads, and other improved means, are multiplied and multiplying beyond all human anticipation. The once terrible danger of savage warfare is now only matter of history. In brief, the elements of civilized life are indefinitely increased in number and power.

* As originally published in the National Intelligencer.

TABULAR VIEW.

Years.	By Census Tables.	By an annual increment of 3 pr. ct.	Ann. in- crement.	Years.	By Census tables.	By an annual increment of 3 per cent.	Annual incent. ^t
1790,	3,929,827	117,894	1846,	20,557,823	616,734
1791,	4,047,721	121,421	1847,	21,174,557	635,235
1792,	4,169,152	125,073	1848,	21,809,792	654,292
1793,	4,294,225	128,826	1849,	22,464,084	673,920
1794,	4,423,151	132,693	1850,	23,026,694	23,138,004	694,140
1795,	Ra. of de.	4,455,844	136,694	1851,	23,832,144	714,962
1796,	cen. incr.,	4,692,518	140,775	1852,	24,547,107	736,413
1797,	1.35.	4,853,293	144,998	1853,	25,283,520	758,505
1798,	4,978,291	149,348	1854,	26,042,025	781,260
1799,	5,127,639	153,829	1855,	26,823,285	804,698
1800,	5,305,925	5,281,468	158,444	1856,	27,627,983	828,839
1801,	5,439,912	163,197	1857,	28,456,822	853,704
1802,	5,603,199	168,193	1858,	29,310,526	879,315
1803,	5,771,302	173,139	1859,	30,189,841	905,694
1804,	Ra. of in.,	5,944,441	178,332	1860,	31,596,562	31,095,535	932,865
1805,	1.36.	6,122,773	183,689	1861,	32,028,400	960,852
1806,	6,306,452	189,192	1862,	32,989,252	989,676
1807,	6,495,644	194,869	1863,	33,978,928	1,019,367
1808,	6,690,513	200,715	1864,	34,998,825	1,039,946
1809,	6,891,228	204,736	1865,	35,038,231	1,051,146
1810,	7,095,964	212,869	1866,	36,089,377	1,082,681
1811,	7,308,892	219,265	1867,	37,170,958	1,115,128
1812,	7,528,107	225,845	1868,	38,286,086	1,148,582
1813,	7,753,950	232,618	1869,	39,434,668	1,183,040
1814,	Ra. of in.,	7,986,568	239,567	1870,	41,839,588	40,617,708	1,218,531
1815,	1.33.	8,226,163	246,784	1871,	41,836,239	1,255,057
1816,	8,472,947	254,156	1872,	43,091,325	1,292,739
1817,	8,726,044	261,781	1873,	44,384,064	1,331,521
1818,	8,987,825	269,634	1874,	45,715,585	1,371,467
1819,	9,257,459	277,723	1875,	47,087,052	1,412,611
1820,	9,638,131	9,535,182	285,055	1876,	48,499,663	1,454,989
1821,	9,890,237	294,607	1877,	49,954,652	1,498,639
1822,	10,114,844	303,345	1878,	51,453,291	1,543,598
1823,	10,418,289	312,548	1879,	52,996,889	1,589,906
1824,	10,730,837	321,925	1880,	55,822,519	54,586,795	1,637,604
1825,	11,052,762	331,582	1881,	56,224,399	1,686,731
1826,	11,384,344	341,530	1882,	57,911,130	1,737,333
1827,	11,725,874	351,776	1883,	59,648,463	1,799,453
1828,	12,077,650	362,329	1884,	61,447,916	1,843,437
1829,	12,437,979	373,139	1885,	63,291,353	1,898,739
1830,	12,856,407	12,811,118	384,333	1886,	65,190,192	1,955,725
1831,	13,195,451	395,862	1887,	67,145,917	2,014,377
1832,	13,591,313	407,739	1888,	69,160,294	2,074,828
1833,	13,999,052	419,171	1889,	71,235,122	2,147,053
1834,	Ra. of in.,	14,419,230	432,570	1890,	73,977,990	73,382,185	2,191,464
1835,	1.32.	14,851,593	445,547	1891,	75,573,639	2,267,209
1836,	15,297,140	458,913	1892,	77,840,848	2,335,225
1837,	15,756,053	472,680	1893,	80,176,063	2,405,281
1838,	16,228,733	486,862	1894,	82,581,344	2,477,440
1839,	16,715,575	501,468	1895,	85,058,784	2,551,763
1840,	17,063,353	17,217,706	516,531	1896,	87,610,547	2,618,316
1841,	17,734,237	532,026	1897,	90,228,863	2,706,865
1842,	18,266,263	547,986	1898,	92,935,728	2,788,071
1843,	18,814,249	564,436	1899,	95,723,799	2,871,713
1844,	19,378,685	581,358	1900,	102,840,201	98,595,512	2,957,865
1845,	19,959,053	598,777	1901,	101,553,377

We have in the preceding table an approximative view of the population of the United States through 110 years. The accuracy of the census of 1840 has been severely, and in some respects justly criticised; but, in regard to the aggregate number of persons, there is strong evidence to sustain the general results. I may repeat that, in deducing the

numbers under the head, "by an annual increment of 3 per cent," the process was continued throughout on the original basis. The coincidences shown by the two columns could not have arisen, except from corresponding accuracy in taking and recording the material.

Mere numbers, however, though the most material, is only one of the considerations which claim our attention. The spread and location of the people demand the most attentive inquiry. We may, in returning to 1790, inquire where did then population exist? In answer, it may be observed, that, with not an exception of one-tenth, the main spine of the Appalachian mountains bounded in 1790 the resident population towards the interior of the continent. It is safe, therefore, to assume the Atlantic slope, with an area of 300,000 square miles, and a distributive population of about 13 to the square mile, as the space and number of people on it when the first census was taken.

Before 1790, scattering settlements had been made on the fountains of interior rivers; but, during the decennial period from 1790 to 1800, those settlements greatly increased, and expanded into the interior basin; and it may be premised that, for reasons too obvious to specify, Louisiana and Florida come into our general view. By the census of 1800, the subjoined sections had a population of—

Kentucky,.....	persons	220,555
Tennessee,.....		105,602
Ohio,.....		45,365
Indiana,.....		4,375
Mississippi,.....		8,830
To which add, by supposition, for Western New York, Western Pennsylvania, Western Virginia, Michigan, Florida, and Louisiana,.....		100,000
Total,.....		484,727

This amount for the aggregate population of the United States on the central basin may rather excite suspicion of excess than the contrary. The space embraced by the extremes of settlement amounted to about 360,000 square miles, or not 14 persons to 10 square miles. At the same epoch, New Orleans, with perhaps 5,000 inhabitants, was the only city deserving the title. But the great central valley was reached, and in the next ten years great was the change. In 1810, excluding that of the western parts of New York, Pennsylvania, and Virginia, the interior population, as shown by the census of that year, stood as follows:—

	Inhabitants.	Sq. ms.		Inhabitants.	Sq. ms.
Kentucky,.....	406,511	39,000	Arkansas,.....		55,000
Tennessee,.....	281,727	40,000	Mississippi,.....	40,350	45,000
Ohio,.....	230,760	39,000	Louisiana,.....	76,556	48,000
Indiana,.....	24,520	36,000	Alabama,.....		51,000
Illinois,.....	12,288	59,000			
Missouri,.....	20,845	60,000	Amount,....	1,098,319	526,000
Michigan,.....	4,762	54,000			

These elements yield a distributive population of a very small fraction over two to the square mile. On the much most densely populated sections, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Ohio, with a combined area of 118,000 square miles, the aggregate population expressed in round numbers of 917,000, the distributive population did not reach eight to the square mile.

By the census returns of 1820, the entire surface designated in the latter table was represented to possess a distributive population of about four to the square mile, or an aggregate of 2,217,464; the population having rather more than doubled in the decennial period from 1810 to 1820.

In 1830, on the same surface as above, the census reported an aggregate of 3,672,569; the ratio of increase from 1820 to 1830 being about 1 7-10ths; and, though the interior population had so rapidly increased, still the distribution fell short of seven to the square mile.

The fifth census (of 1840) was, except that of 1790, the most important yet taken, as half a century was embraced by the extremes, and an aggregate of 5,302,918 inhabitants was reported by the last enumeration; and yet only a small fraction over ten to the square mile. When we behold a wilderness changed in so few years from a howling waste to the prosperous aspect presented in 1840, we are inspired with pleasing wonder; and yet, when we reflect, our conviction must be involuntary that population has only taken its steps of infancy, as the density was not then equal to one-sixth of some of the Atlantic sections of inferior soil.

It may also be called to mind that the combined region under immediate review does not include all of "the western country" embraced by the census of 1840. Every principle applicable to the sections named applies also to the western parts of New York, Pennsylvania, and Virginia, on which we find recorded on the census tables of 1840—

Western New York,.....	1,683,068
" Pennsylvania,.....	815,289
" Virginia,.....	147,514
Amount,.....	2,645,871
Add,.....	5,302,918
Total, 1840, on "western country,".....	7,948,789

Those parts of New York, Pennsylvania, and Virginia, if combined, embrace a length from northeast to southwest of 700 miles, and a mean breadth of at least 100 miles—area, 70,000 square miles; which, if added to 526,000, yields an entire superficies of 596,000, or, for all general purposes, we may say 600,000 square miles, and in like manner assume 8,000,000 of inhabitants; not yielding a distributive population of 14 to the square mile.

Without attempting to compare "the great West," or rather the part of it under review, to the most dense part of the Atlantic border, let us see what would be its aggregate population if equal to that of Pennsylvania in 1840. Pennsylvania, with a superficies of about 47,000 square miles, had in 1840 within a fraction of 1,174,000 inhabitants—a like proportion on 600,000 square miles would approach 15,000,000—an amount yielding only 25 to the square mile.

We might continue these comparative views, and give far stronger illustrations of the subject; but we pause, and will close this paper with the following:—

If a line is drawn from the Gulf of Mexico, along the western borders of Louisiana, Arkansas, and Missouri, and from the northwestern angle of the latter, up the Missouri river to the Mandan villages, and thence due north to latitude 49°, the space left between such a line and the Atlantic ocean comprises to a small comparative fraction of 1,300,000 square miles. We have already seen that the Atlantic slope contains 300,000 square miles, which, if deducted from the whole extent, as above, leaves 1,000,000 of square miles between the Appalachian mountains and the central line we have traced. This great central region, by the census of 1840, had a distributive population differing little from eight to the square mile.

For the moment, we leave reflections and anticipations to the reader.

REVENUE, DEBTS, AND POWER OF EUROPEAN NATIONS.

In England, the number of inhabitants is 28,000,000, on 90,950 square miles, or 363 per square mile; in France, the population is 34,700,000, on 154,000 square miles, or 225 per square mile; in Austria, there are 37,500,000 inhabitants, on 204,000 square miles, or 184 per square mile; in Prussia, the population is 15,500,000, on 80,450 square miles, or 181 per square mile; in Russia in Europe, the population is 50,500,000, scattered on the enormous quantity of 2,000,000 square miles, being but 2½ persons to each square mile. At nearly the same period, the public debt and revenue of each of these powers were as follows:—

	Revenue.	Debt.
England,.....	£53,400,000	£813,800,000
France,.....	38,480,000	156,000,000
Austria,.....	20,880,000	68,000,000
Prussia,.....	8,320,000	25,800,000
Russia,.....	17,360,000	61,500,000

Thus England is indebted to the extent of thirteen times its revenue, while France and Russia owe but four times their respective revenues: Austria and Prussia little more than thrice. The relative number of troops kept up in time of peace by each nation, holds about the same proportion—the number of soldiers in the whole British empire being 410,000; in France, 363,000; in Austria, 424,000; in Prussia, 131,000; and in Russia, 1,000,000.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

DEPARTMENT OF HYDROGRAPHY, HAVANA.

THIS department, under date of September 9th, 1846, gives notice to those captains of vessels, and all others who use the general directions as given by this establishment, on their map of the Atlantic Ocean, published in 1837.

It is necessary to add to this map a sounding, or "necessity of look out," which was discovered at 3 o'clock of the evening of the 23d of May, in good order, and for its purpose *available weather*, by Don Gabriel Perez, Captain of the Spanish merchantman *Leontina*, in latitude North $38^{\circ} 27'$ and longitude West from Cadiz $31^{\circ} 39' 37''$ by observation, made immediately after the discovery of the break on the hidden rock, and which is worthy of confidence, as proven by the rate of the chronometer, tested at the Island of Graicosa, (Terceras,) and nevertheless doubted that this dangerous spot is that which was marked as being in the same latitude, but a little more to the Westward, under the name of Vigia Chanterneau, or Roof of Princess Isabel, in 1721 and 1728, and being the same which it previously has, perhaps from carelessness in defining its actual position, on the part of navigators, being misplaced.

MADRID, July 4th, 1846.—After the receipt of the previous note, official information has been had, that on the 10th to 11th of May, in the same year, the Spanish trading ship *Amphitrite*, passing from Havana to Cadiz, discovered a surf-break at a cable's length, which was situated in $35^{\circ} 50'$ North latitude, and $59^{\circ} 46' 38''$ West longitude from Cadiz.

REVOLVING LIGHT ON STONE KEY.

The following is a copy of a letter from the United States Consul at Cardenas, dated Cardenas, Sept. 8, 1846:—

This night, for the first time, will be lighted the Revolving Light on "Stone Key," (Cayo de Piedras) recently erected by private enterprise. The elevation is said to be 100 feet Spanish, equal to 92 feet English, above the water. "Stone Key," by the chart of this Bay, is about three Spanish marine miles N. E. by N. from "Puerta de Ycaco;" "Cayo Mona" is about 2½ miles N. E. of "Stone Key," and this last is about 12 or 13 marine miles N. N. E. from this town. It is probable the light may be seen some twenty miles, or more, in clear and unfoggy atmosphere.

The proprietors have the privilege of charging two dollars to all foreign vessels, or vessels coming from sea, and one dollar to each coasting vessel arriving at Cardenas, Matanzas, or Sagua, for eight years; after which, should it have repaid the costs and reasonable profits, the lighthouse is to belong to the government.

Vessels leaving the Bahama Banks may run boldly for the light, and having made it, they will know precisely their position, and may run for a port, and often escape an impending "Norther" or gale setting on the coast. Navigators to these ports will fully understand this advantage in the winter season.

Respectfully, your obedient servant,

A. S. NICHOLS, U. S. C. for Cardenas.

NEW SOUTH SHOAL.

We learn from the Boston Advertiser, that information has been received in that city, that "a new and dangerous shoal has been discovered by the Hydrographic party conducting the coast survey in the neighborhood of Nantucket. This shoal lies about six miles S. three-quarters W. (by compass,) from the known south shoal, is about 1.9 (one and nine-tenths) miles in extent in an E. and W. direction, and quite narrow from north to south. The least water on it is eight feet. A sketch, showing the relative positions of the two shoals, the soundings in their vicinity, the character of the bottom, and the force and direction of the currents, will be issued from the office of the coast survey, in a short time." The exact location of these shoals has been a subject of dispute for many years, and we trust that the question is now about to be definitely settled.

GULL STREAM.

A small Knoll having recently grown up on the North Bar in the track of shipping navigating between the Gull Knoll and the Brake Sand, notice thereof is hereby given, and that a Black Buoy, marked "North Bar," will be laid on the shoalest part of the said Knoll, in two fathoms at low water spring tides, with the following marks and compass bearings, viz. :—

St. Clement's Church, Sandwich, its breadth open to the Northward of	
Woodnessbro' Church.....	W. $\frac{1}{4}$ S.
St. Lawrence Mill, just open to the Northward of Mount Albion Trees	N. W. $\frac{1}{4}$ N.
North Brake Buoy.....	N. W.
North Foreland Lighthouse.....	N. $\frac{1}{4}$ W.
Gull Buoy.....	N. E. by E.
Goodwin Light Vessel.....	E. by S. $\frac{1}{4}$ S.
Gull Stream Light Vessel.....	S. W. $\frac{1}{4}$ S.

LONGITUDE OF BRAZOS SANTIAGO.

Captain Morgan of the Brig Jefferson, reports to the New Orleans Picayune, that in all his books and charts of that coast, Brazos Island is laid down 25 miles too far to the westward. In several observations during his stay at the Brazos, he ascertained the true latitude and longitude to be—lat. $26^{\circ} 06'$ N., long. $97^{\circ} 05'$ W. He also further states, that during his passage to and from Brazos, he found that the currents were governed entirely by the wind. Strong southeast winds, the current run $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 knots north; strong north winds, current 2 knots south. We learn that in a new chart published by Blunt, the longitude is laid down at $97^{\circ} 10'$.

THE DEVIL'S ROCKS, WESTERN ISLANDS.

The following has been transmitted to Lloyd's. Extract of the log of the brig Packet, William Squire, R. N., Commander, on her voyage from Mauritius to London :—

SUNDAY, August 23, 1846.—"At 1 $^{\circ}$ 30' A. M. saw the Devil's Rocks bearing W. S. W., distance half a cable's length—the rocks appearing in three distinct ridges, from 80 to 100 feet in length, and about 10 feet in breadth; the Eastern and Western ridge formed like a cock's comb; the whole surrounded by large bodies of kelp or sea weed; the shoal water appearing to extend about two miles from the coast; the latitude or longitude in the chart appearing quite correct. MEMORANDUM—These rocks are in the direct channel course from the Western Islands."

NEW LIGHT, ISLAND OF HONDURAS.

On the 17th of July, 1846, three lights in the shape of a triangle were exhibited at Manger Kaye, in lat. $17^{\circ} 36'$ N., lon. $87^{\circ} 67'$ W., which were seen from twelve to sixteen miles distant, in a very squally night. The light is so placed that by bringing the two lower lights (which are 75 feet above the level of the sea) into one, a vessel may shape her course at a distance of six miles from the Kaye for English Kaye. The top light of Manger Kaye is 95 feet above the level of the sea.

NEW LIGHTHOUSE, SOUTH POINT OF GOTLAND.

A stone lighthouse, 58 feet high, is erected on the South Point of Gotland, about a mile N. E. of Hoburg. It shows a revolving light, visible at intervals of $1\frac{1}{2}$ minutes, and lasts half a minute. It stands about 170 feet above the level of the sea, and is seen from E. by N. through S. to N. by E. magnetic bearings, at about sixteen sea miles from the deck. It will be lighted on the 30th September, and be subject to the same regulations as the other Swedish Lights, as to being lighted and extinguished.

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

WESTERN RAILROADS AND CANALS.

BY JESSE W. SCOTT, ESQ., OF OHIO.

THERE are more movements in the West towards the construction of these great instruments of commerce, than at any time since the collapse of 1837. The West, since that time, has gathered up new means, and the East is losing its dread of Western investments. Three striking evidences of the renewed confidence in Western enterprises, at the East and in Europe, have been recently exhibited. The first was shown in the action of the Indiana bondholders in taking the Wabash and Erie Canal in part payment of their bonds, with the obligation to complete it to the Ohio river. The second is the loan of \$3,000,000 of English capital, to enable the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad Company to carry their great work to Pittsburgh, and ultimately to Cleveland; and last, in the purchase, by the bond-holders of Michigan, of the Central Railroad, to be extended westward to Lake Michigan.

These are strong evidences of returning confidence in Western enterprises; and are, probably, but the precursors of far more extensive investments in Western railroads. The taking up the stock of the Buffalo and Mississippi Railroad Company, and pushing through a railroad on that most promising of all the unoccupied railroad routes in the United States, only waits a favorable turn in the money market. Estimates are now being completed for the construction of that portion between Toledo and Chicago.

From Buffalo to Chicago, will exhibit more characteristics of a great trunk road than any other in the United States. More great works made and being made along the south shore of Lake Erie, terminate on the shore of that lake than any other three hundred mile line in the United States. The connecting of these by a great trunk railroad will be of immense advantage to these works and to the owners of the railroad. The south shore of Lake Michigan, every one must see, will also concentrate canals and railroads to a great extent. There is—there can be no line in the United States, of the same length, capable of concentrating so vast an amount of travel and trade as that between Buffalo and Chicago. Concentrated on the American shore of Lake Erie, there are now completed and in operation, of canal and railroad lines, more than two thousand miles.

RAILROADS.

Boston to Buffalo,.....	500
Sandusky and Mansfield,.....	50
Sandusky and Cincinnati,*.....	225
Toledo, Monroe, and Hillsdale,.....	100
Total,.....	875

CANALS.

Albany to Buffalo,.....	363
Pittsburgh to Erie,.....	130
Ohio—from Cleveland to Portsmouth, Athens, Marion, and Pittsburgh,.....	500
Toledo to Covington,.....	300
● Toledo to Cincinnati,.....	247
Completed and in operation,.....	1,540
Add railroads,.....	875
	2,315

* To be finished next spring.

Of the Canals, 70 miles from Toledo to Junction is a common trunk, and is counted twice.

Such is the extent of works brought to Lake Erie for the benefit of its commerce.

There are now being made, in extension of these works, 160 miles of canal;—from Covington to Evansville, Indiana. The New York and Erie Railroad—say 400 miles. The Baltimore and Ohio Railroad—say to Cleveland, 450 miles. The Cleveland and Cincinnati Railroad—say 250 miles. In all, 1,100 miles of railroad, and 760 miles of canal.

ROYAL MAIL STEAM PACKET COMPANY.

We have been requested to publish in this Magazine the following particulars of the route traversed by passengers between England and the west coasts of South America, as conveying important information to the American public. This statement is furnished by E. Chapel, Esq., Secretary of the "Royal Mail Steam Packet Company," 55 Moorgate-street, London.

SOUTHAMPTON TO CHAGRES.

The Steam Ships of the Royal Mail Steam Packet Company leave Southampton on the 17th of every month, and proceed (*via* Jamaica) to Chagres, where they arrive on the 20th or 21st of the following month, the passage occupying about 34 days.

Fares.—Half Fore Cabin, £50; Whole do., £55; Whole After Cabin, £60; which includes board, bedding and linen, steward's fees, and all other charges, except for wines, spirits, malt liquors, and mineral waters.

At Chagres the steamers stop about half a day to land passengers proceeding over land to Panama, where the steamers of the Pacific Steam Packet Company embark them for conveyance to the different ports southward as far as Valparaiso.

CHAGRES TO SOUTHAMPTON.

On the 25th or 26th of each month, the return steamer starts from Chagres with the mails and passengers that have arrived from the Pacific, and proceeds (*via* Jamaica, Havana, and Bermuda) to Southampton, where she is due on the 7th of each month, the passage occupying about 40 days.

Fares.—Half Fore Cabin, £45; Whole do., £50; Whole After Cabin, £55; which includes board, bedding and linen, steward's fees, and all other charges, except for wines, spirits, malt liquors, and mineral waters.

CHAGRES TO THE UNITED STATES.

By the last-mentioned steamer, which leaves Chagres on the 25th or 26th of each month, passengers from the Pacific, for the United States, will reach Havana on the 7th or 8th of the following month, after a passage of 12 days. Fare, 80 dollars; which includes board, bedding and linen, steward's fees, and all other charges, except wines, spirits, malt liquors, and mineral waters.

An American Steamer leaves Havana, monthly, for New Orleans; and there are monthly Sailing Packets, from Havana, to New York; also many Trading Vessels to the ports of the United States generally, the passage fares by which are moderate. Mr. Perry, Her Britannic Majesty's Consul at Panama, has (with the consent of Her Majesty's Government) been appointed agent for the Royal Mail Steam Packet Company at that place; and every information relative to the passage by the Company's Vessels may be obtained from that gentleman, who will likewise receive specie, bullion, jewellery, &c., give printed receipts as bills of lading for the same, and provide for their transmission (the usual risks excepted) to the Bank of England. The form of receipts for specie, &c., proposed to be issued by the Company, has been submitted to several of the leading insurance offices in London, and they have expressed their willingness to insure specie, etc., transmitted from Panama to the Bank of England, under the conditions therein contained, and at the usual rates. The charge established upon freights of specie and bullion, which includes the expenses of transit across the Isthmus, and all other charges, from delivery to the Company's Agent at Panama till delivered at the Bank of England, is $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent; upon pearls, emeralds, and all other precious stones, unset, (being exempt from duty,) $2\frac{1}{4}$ per cent on their value, also deliverable at the Bank of England: and upon jewellery subject to duty, $2\frac{1}{4}$ per cent on its value, deliverable at Southampton. Treasure can only be received securely packed in wooden cases.

A RAILWAY SMOKING SALOON.

We cannot recommend smoking, although we are sometimes guilty of the practice. But the moral editor of the "American Railroad Journal" assures us that the smoking portion of the community is certainly not the *least* respectable portion—that it is quite too large to be neglected in providing for the comfort and convenience of the public. Notwithstanding all the "counterblasts" from King James down to Mr. Lane, the practice holds its sway over men, and the Journal thinks it ever will as long as tobacco grows. "There is no use then in denying accommodations to smokers, on the ground of objection to the habit by many; and too many great and good men have smoked and do smoke, to allow of any one stigmatising the practice as vulgar or indecent."

In the United States we believe there is no regular arrangement for this purpose; but it will be seen from the following paragraph from an English paper, that it has been introduced into that country, and ample arrangements made to accommodate the "smoking public" who travel:—

"A novelty has recently been introduced on the Eastern Counties Railway in the running of a handsome carriage termed a smoking or excursion saloon. In size and form of build it much resembles the royal carriages on the Great Western, South Western, and other railways. Its extreme length is 40 feet, the body about 30 feet, the ends being converted into a kind of open lounge. It runs on six wheels, which are fitted with Adams' patent bow springs. The internal decorations are of the most *recherche* description. The seats extend the full length of the sides, and are handsomely covered with morocco leather. A highly polished mahogany table occupies the centre, the entire fitted with self-balancing lamps. The sides are lighted by eight plate-glass windows of unusual size, while the ends are fitted up with four plates of looking-glass. Its drapery is composed of bright crimson silk formed in very graceful design. The roof presents an exceedingly chaste appearance. The groundwork is painted white, the mouldings being gilt. The general furniture is of richly carved polished mahogany. The exterior is painted a deep marone color, ornamented with gold etchings and emblazoned with the company's ciphers. Passengers using this smoking saloon are to pay first-class fare."

GEORGIA RAILROAD AND BANKING COMPANY.

We compile from the annual report of this corporation, the following tabular statement of its affairs, for the year commencing April 1st, 1845, and ending April 1st, 1846. It will be seen that the statements embrace the expenses incurred for making the railroad, distance between Augusta and Atlanta, from station to station, the business of each station, and of the entire road.

The expenses for conducting transportation amounted to.....	\$31,353 53
" " " motive power,.....	36,406 46
" " " maintenance of way,.....	53,592 56
" " " maintenance of cars,.....	14,851 19
Total expenses,.....	\$136,203 74

DISTANCES ON THE GEORGIA RAILROAD, BETWEEN AUGUSTA AND ATLANTA, FROM STATION TO STATION, IN MILES AND THE NEAREST DECIMAL.

Augusta to Belair.....	10.1	Augusta to Social Circle.....	119.3
" Berzelia.....	20.8	" Covington.....	129.9
" Dearing.....	28.9	" Conyer's.....	140.3
" Thomson.....	37.5	" Lithonia.....	146.7
" Camak.....	46.9	" Stone Mountain.....	155.2
" Cumming.....	56.8	" Decatur.....	164.6
" Crawfordville.....	64.3	" Atlanta.....	170.7
" Union Point.....	76.0	Camak to Warrenton.....	3.7
" Greensboro'.....	83.1	Union Point to Woodville.....	4.7
" Buckhead.....	95.5	" Maxey's.....	12.3
" Madison.....	103.3	" Lexington.....	22.1
" Rutledge.....	112.1	" Athens.....	38.4

The following table exhibits:—1. The numbers and names of engines; 2. Weight of each engine, in tons and decimals; 3. Commencement of service; 4. Number of miles run by each engine from April 1, 1845, to April 1, 1846; 5. Total number of miles run by each engine from beginning of service to April 1, 1846; 6. Cost of repairs to each engine, from April 1, 1845, to April 1, 1846; 7. Total cost of repairs and improvements to each engine from beginning of service to April 1, 1846.

1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
1 Pennsylvania.....	11.40	May 5, 1837	24,336	188,731	\$571 10	\$5,404 42
2 Georgia.....	11.59	May 5, 1837	27,127	121,197	1,315 91	6,706 85
3 Florida.....	11.40	Dec'r 27, 1837		60,581		3,526 74
4 Alabama.....	11.40	Jan'y 12, 1838	10,824	152,054	701 19	5,937 21
5 Louisiana.....	11.30	Feb'y 2, 1838	33,585	163,275	626 58	6,828 28
6 Tennessee.....	15.40	May 29, 1838	5,147	81,471	1,407 89	5,038 35
7 Wm. Dearing...	13.00	Nov'r 6, 1838	16,925	109,190	538 38	4,915 10
8 Virginia.....	12.96	Dec'r 24, 1838	6,021	77,928	490 61	5,260 25
9 Mississippi.....	13.00	Dec'r 28, 1838	17,618	78,025	488 99	4,131 76
10 Kentucky.....	13.00	Mar. 24, 1839	18,602	90,843	610 41	4,879 63
11 Wm. Cumming...	12.35	Dec'r 14, 1839	4,884	17,459	45 60	1,740 68
12 James Kamak...	12.35	Dec'r 23, 1839	5,073	46,038	226 50	2,888 11
13 Athenian.....	11.08	Jan'y 3, 1845	15,635	19,745	697 14	718 14
14 Cherokee.....	15.40	April 28, 1845	11,118	11,118	306 86	306 86
15 South Carolina..	15.68	Nov'r 1, 1845	7,718	7,718	67 26	67 26
16 North Carolina..	15.43	Nov'r 4, 1845	7,558	7,558	52 55	52 55
17 Eagle.....	13.00	Dec'r 5, 1845	13,680	13,680	368 10	368 10

STATEMENT OF THE BUSINESS OF EACH STATION ON THE GEORGIA RAILROAD, FOR THE YEAR ENDING MARCH 31, 1846.

	Passengers up and down.	Freight up.	Freight down.
Oothcaloga.....		\$4,640 96	\$194 08
Kingston.....		5,329 07	3,131 28
Cartersville.....		5,719 70	3,890 17
Ackworth.....		483 21	327 97
Marietta.....		7,914 54	2,214 05
Atlanta.....	\$37,325 54	26,022 80	5,658 08
Decatur.....	469 00	1,305 82	792 69
Stone Mountain.....	423 50	651 08	428 71
Lithonia.....	70 00	353 66	410 50
Conyer's.....	70 00	367 77	394 00
Covington.....	9,509 50	15,918 91	8,634 10
Social Circle.....	1,416 00	2,170 59	2,207 56
Madison.....	3,666 78	7,525 69	13,398 36
Buckhead.....	122 50	164 07	1,096 51
Greensboro'.....	2,401 88	3,039 55	5,316 26
Athens.....	9,274 11	23,545 57	5,812 40
Lexington.....	760 00	1,882 87	3,689 93
Maxey's.....	227 25	962 78	2,482 31
Woodville.....	232 00	1,229 53	1,081 39
Union.....	2,163 26	350 08	809 07
Murden's.....	7 00		
Crawfordville.....	1,307 71	1,207 36	2,554 45
Cumming.....	2,052 25	1,048 75	3,211 70
Warrenton.....	3,274 44	1,886 10	3,231 82
Camak.....	492 90	285 14	1,059 47
Thomson.....	796 00	640 66	877 40
Dearing.....	188 75	112 71	123 65
Ben Verdery's.....	31 81		
Berzelia.....	258 50	125 61	500 11
Pepper Hill.....	75 32		
Belair.....	159 50	53 51	1,474 05
Lawrence's.....	30 75		
Way passengers and freight.....	15,860 73		4,858 34
	\$92,664 98	\$114,938 09	\$80,160 47

STATEMENT OF THE AGGREGATE AMOUNT OF BUSINESS DONE ON THE GEORGIA RAILROAD,
FROM APRIL 1, 1845, TO APRIL 1, 1846.

Months.	Pas'grs.	Amount.	Freight up.	Up and down Amount.	Mail.	Total.
April.....	1,633½	\$6,135 27	\$9,855 18	\$20,221 78	\$2,968 49	\$29,325 54
May.....	1,582½	5,916 68	5,022 67	8,487 29	2,968 49	17,372 46
June.....	1,466	5,013 89	3,344 11	5,141 05	2,968 49	13,123 43
July.....	1,709	5,734 97	3,225 25	4,891 28	2,968 49	13,594 74
August...	1,558½	5,178 67	3,582 91	4,629 10	2,968 49	12,776 26
Septemb'r	2,091½	6,809 76	8,932 02	10,526 40	2,968 49	20,304 65
October..	2,394½	9,610 18	14,101 11	19,781 34	3,310 15	32,701 67
Novemb'r	1,970	8,250 40	10,598 86	19,469 83	3,310 15	31,030 39
December	2,539	9,631 76	8,295 21	20,920 01	3,310 15	33,861 92
January..	2,343	9,682 73	7,128 99	17,045 00	3,310 15	30,037 69
February.	2,102½	8,945 81	24,568 12	31,892 57	3,310 15	44,148 53
March....	2,596½	10,549 03	16,283 65	27,234 57	3,310 15	41,093 76
Totals.	23,986½	\$91,459 15	\$114,938 09	\$190,240 22	\$37,671 87	\$319,371 24
Total amount as per above table.....					\$319,371 24	
Extra trips.....					739 45	
Extra baggage, &c.....					337 33	
Season tickets.....					237 00	
Lots negroes.....					870 50	
Freight between stations.....					4,858 34	
Rents.....					417 65	
					326,831 51	
Deduct for Western and Atlantic railroad proportion.....					11,489 92	
					\$315,341 59	

HARTFORD AND NEW HAVEN RAILROAD.

The railroad between Hartford and New Haven is thirty-six miles in length, and forms a link in one of the many railroad and steamboat routes between New York and Boston, which, however, is not very generally adopted by travellers, as the other routes are more direct and rapid. By this route passengers leave New York every morning, by steamboat for New Haven, a distance of 78 miles; at New Haven they take the New Haven and Hartford Railroad, 36 miles, for the latter place, which connects with the Hartford and Springfield road to the latter place, 26 miles further. From Springfield, the Western Railroad conveys them to Boston, a distance of 96 miles. Total by this route between New York and Boston, 238 miles.

The report of the directors of the Hartford and New Haven Railroad Company, recently made to stockholders, at their annual meeting, exhibits the affairs of that company in a highly favorable light. It appears that the receipts of the road from Sept. 1, 1845, to Sept. 1, 1846, have been as follows:—

From passengers.....	\$155,061 01
Freight.....	61,250 73
Mail and expresses.....	12,300 00
Total.....	\$228,611 74
Expenses of operating and maintaining the road, and interests on bonds and loans.....	123,483 24
Nett income for the year.....	\$105,128 50
Equal to 7½ per cent on the amount of stock issued.	

The receipts the previous year, from Sept. 1, 1844, to Sept. 1, 1845, were \$176,984 40. The extension road was opened for business on the 9th of December, 1844, and the

directors made the income of the last nine months of the year the basis for an estimate of the income of the current year, and the amount was fixed at \$210,000. The receipts, as will be seen above, have exceeded the estimate, \$18,611 74.

The number of passengers transported between Hartford and Springfield, exclusive of way and through travel, has been, during the past year, 45,945. Between Springfield and New Haven, exclusive of way and through travel, 16,084. Whole number of passengers transported between all the stations, 196,278; of this large number, not one received the slightest injury while on the road.

STEAMBOATS BUILT IN THE WEST, IN 1846.

We find the following statistics in the Cincinnati Advertiser, giving the number of Steamboats built at the places named:—

	Boats.	Tonnage.	Cost.
New Albany.....	11	1,959	\$118,500
Louisville.....	16	4,152	270,000
St. Louis.....	10	2,912	180,500
Cincinnati.....	29	7,209	505,500
Pittsburgh.....	42	5,428	325,500
	108	51,660	\$1,400,000

The Advertiser says, there are at this time no less than 750 steamboats on these rivers, whose tonnage will not fall short of 160,000 tons, and which have cost, in their construction and equipment, \$12,000,000. What a magnificent picture of Western progress is presented in these facts. Our steamboat commerce is only thirty years old, and a single large boat out of these 750 vessels, could take the whole annual produce to New Orleans, which, forty years ago, floated from the West to that port.

BROOKLYN STEAMBOAT FERRIES.

The distance from the city of New York to the city of Brooklyn, from the different ferries, is as follows:—South Ferry, 1,300 yards, or 20 yards less than three-quarters of a mile; Fulton Ferry, 731 yards; Catharine-street Ferry, 736 yards, and Jackson-street Ferry, 707 yards. In 1654, the charge for ferrriage of a foot passenger was three stuyvers; in 1693, eight stuyvers in wampum, or two pence in silver; in 1752, ten grains of Sevil silver or Mexican plate, or two pence in bills of credit. During the revolutionary war, it was raised to six pence, but it was afterward reduced to two pence. It remained at this rate till the introduction of steamboats, when, by an act of the Legislature, the company was authorized to charge four cents on those boats, while it remained as before on other craft. This law remains unaltered, though the present company, some years ago, voluntarily reduced it to three cents, and since February, 1844, they have charged only two cents. The first steamboat—the “Nassau”—was placed on the Fulton ferry in 1814. There are now nine or ten steamboats that are kept in constant use on these ferries during the day, and the Fulton company keep one running the whole night.

EXTENSION OF THE MAGNETIC TELEGRAPH.

	Miles.
From New York to New Haven, Hartford, Springfield, and Boston.....	265
From New York to Albany, Utica, Auburn, Syracuse, Rochester, Lockport and Buffalo.....	507
From New York to Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Washington.....	240
From Philadelphia to Harrisburg.....	105
From Boston to Lowell.....	26
From Boston to Portland, (110 miles—half finished,).....	55
From Ithaca to Auburn.....	40
From Troy to Saratoga.....	31

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

NINETEENTH EXHIBITION OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE,

HELD AT CASTLE GARDEN, IN THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

THE Nineteenth Exhibition of the American Institute, which occurred in the city of New York, was attended with all those circumstances that were calculated to make such an event interesting and important. The Fair, which constituted a prominent part of this exhibition, was held in Castle Garden, at the foot of the Battery; a structure which, from its magnitude—furnishing, as it does, an ample theatre, that is believed to be the largest upon the continent—was peculiarly adapted to the display of the various articles that were collected for the occasion. This fortress was appropriately decorated for the purpose, and the accumulation within its walls of the innumerable products of agriculture, manufactures, and the useful arts, together with the interest excited by the vast concourse of spectators who daily thronged its area, gave to the occasion a more than ordinary interest. The articles of the fair consisted of all kinds of fabrics of art, machines, models, and inventions connected with the several branches of domestic industry, and, as belonging to the general design, there was also an exhibition of the most approved specimens of stock that are employed in husbandry, and a display of horticultural and floral products. During the same time, there was held in the same city, a national convention of farmers, gardeners, and silk culturists. An address by the Honorable Mahlon Dickerson, the president of the Institute, was also delivered as introductory to the occasion, and the whole exhibition received that public interest which is due to the importance of the subject.

It can hardly be doubted that the objects of the American Institute are of great public utility. They tend to array in one grand display, the various products and inventions of the useful arts; to assemble in the principal commercial city of the Union those individuals who are interested in the same general cause, for mutual consultation; to exhibit the actual progress of the nation in the useful arts; to show what inventions have been made, as well as what improvements have been perfected in former inventions; to grant to the deserving and ingenious, the testimonials of merit which their industry would seem to evoke; and, finally, to collect upon one broad platform, that particular portion of the community who are interested in the progress of the country in those respects, for common counsel and deliberation. The society has been in existence for the last nineteen years, and it has been, thus far, successful in the objects for which it was originally founded. Rewards of merit have been granted to the originators of the most approved inventions, consisting of gold and silver medals, silver cups, diplomas, money and books; and those testimonials have, doubtless, tended to encourage a salutary spirit of emulous industry.

If we were to specify any articles which were conspicuous in the exhibition, we might allude to the elegant specimens of cabinet furniture, embroidery with the needle, of great beauty, various pieces of carpeting, of bright color and fine texture, woollen and cotton cloths, hardware, fire-engines, iron and brass work, and various other products connected with the arts and trades. The whole scene was enlivened by a fountain which played in the midst, and by the tone of the piano, and the music of the band, that were heard above the whispers of the crowd. The Gothic arches of a portion of the hall were entwined with evergreens, and machinery of various sorts was made to run by the agency of water that was ingeniously conducted into the place of exhibition. Amid so large a mass of products here collected, it would be difficult, of course, on a casual inspection, to determine the actual excellence of their various kinds, or the value of the several subjects of invention here arrayed; but the whole display was calculated to impress the spectator

with the extent of the progress of the nation in the useful arts, and with the measure of that domestic industry—the *occupation*—which furnishes alike the means of subsistence, and the safeguard against vice, in numerous cases the offspring of idleness. It appeared as if the merchandise which had been accumulated in the storehouses of the city, had been drawn from their shelves, and had been deposited in one common receptacle, where it could be examined at a single view, and thus furnish to the spectator, at one glance, the most accurate information concerning the material progress of the country. We hope that the American Institute, which has been organized upon like principles with those which have been founded for similar purposes in other parts of the Union, will continue to prosper, and accomplish the salutary objects for which it was originally established.

PRODUCTION OF COAL IN THE DIFFERENT STATES OF EUROPE.

After iron, there is certainly no produce of the mineral kingdom which exercises a greater influence upon our commercial relations than coal.

The following is a statistical sketch of the produce of that article in the different countries of Europe :—

ENGLAND.—England possesses the richest veins of coal, both as regards quality and quantity ; they form a line from southwest to northeast. In Northumberland and Durham, from the Tweed to the Tees, coal abounds ; at Whitehaven, in the hills of Cumberland, in Yorkshire, and in Lancashire. The most abundant mines are in Wales.

The consumption of coal in England and in exportation, is so great that it has often been asked, if the mines would not be exhausted ? but, according to calculations made, in proportion to the present consumption, they could not be exhausted under 1500 years—the yearly consumption in Great Britain is 20,000,000 to 21,000,000 of tons.

The exportation increased in the following proportions : In 1830, 505,421 tons ; in 1832, 588,450 tons ; in 1834, 621,256 tons ; in 1836, 1,401,000 tons ; in 1838, 1,413,800 tons ; in 1840, 1,621,300 tons ; in 1842, 2,120,000 tons ; and in 1844, 2,410,000 tons.

The number of miners exceeds 500,000.

English coal is to be had in every part of the civilized world ; there are deposits at Rio Janeiro, at Odessa, at Archangel, and at Constantinople.

FRANCE.—France does not produce enough coal for her own consumption, and is obliged to import. She possesses 250 mines, of which 182 are worked, and which rendered in 1844, 72,000,000 cwts. of coal, to the value of 21,000,000 francs (£840,000.) The produce is increasing, as in 1815, they only rendered 17,000,000 cwts.; 40,000 men are employed in the mines and traffic belonging to them. In 1842, the importation of coal into France, amounted to 16,718,328 cwts.

France imports her coal from Belgium, England, and the Prussian provinces on the Rhine.

SPAIN.—Spain draws but slight profit from her abundant mines ; the principal mine is the Sierra Morena ; the produce is not known. They import but little. In some of the principal Spanish ports, there are depots of English coal for the steamers.

PORTUGAL.—In Portugal there are depots at Figuières, at Coimbra, and near Oporto.

ITALY.—The principal mines of Italy, which produce annually from 140,000 to 150,000 cwts., are in the Savoy, and near Genoa. The others scattered over the peninsula, are of little value, and there are depots of English coal in the principal ports.

BELGIUM.—Belgium possesses immense mineral riches ; in this country, production increases. In 1831, the produce amounted to 22,800,000 cwts., and in 1844, it reached 84,232,420. In 1844, the exportation amounted to 1,050,000 tons, a value of about 6,000,000 florins, (£600,000.)

HOLLAND.—Holland has no coal mines. There is a single mine in the country of Limberg. They import all their coal from England, Belgium, and the Prussian provinces.

SWITZERLAND.—Switzerland, though rich in metals, has very little coal, and imports a quantity from England. The only mine of any value in this country, is at Hohefeld ; in 1843, it produced 514,969 cwts.

NORWAY.—Norway has no coal mines.

RUSSIA.—In Russia, the production of coal does not exceed 800,000 pounds. It seems that between the Don and the Dnieper, and in Siberia, there are rich coal mines, and the government are now taking measures to turn them to account.

DENMARK.—Denmark has one insignificant mine at Bornholm, and imports nearly all her coal from England.

AUSTRIA.—Austria is rich in coal mines, but the produce is not in proportion with the number of her mines. The annual produce of coal in Austria is at least 12,000,000 cwts.; in 1843, it did not exceed 9,000,000. Of this amount, Bohemia produces about one-half; Moravia, 2,000,000; Austria, 1,500,000; Styria, 1,000,000; Carinthia, and the districts of Ogragno, a little more than 500,000; Hungary, 600,000; the coast lands, (Husten-land,) 60,000; Galicia, 3,000; Lombardy, a very small quantity.

Coal mines exist in nearly every province of the monarchy. In Bohemia there are veins of this mineral along the river Beraun, in the north of the districts of Klattan, Pisen, and Rakovits, to the neighborhood of Prague. There are coal mines in the Erzgebirge, in the valleys of the Eger and the Biela, and at the foot of Riesengeberg, from Schatzlar to Landskron.

The principal mines of Moravia are in the district of Brunr, near Rossitz and Oflovon, and the coal near the mouth of the Oder, is of a superior quality. In the Archduchy there are mines near Wiener, Neustadt, Klengenfurt, Gubach and Gloggnitz; in Styria, near Leoben and Fohnsdorf; in Carinthia, in the valley of the Lavan, and in the neighborhood of Prevali; in Dalmatia; in Lombardy, in the districts of Oome and Pavia; in Tyrol, near Haring, and in Hungary, in the Carpathian mountains.

In 1844, Austria exported 773,065 cwts., of which 702,262 cwts. were sent from Bohemia by the Elbe to Saxony; 25,433 cwts. to Turkey; 23,210 cwts. to southern Germany, and 20,542 cwts. to Prussia.

PRUSSIA.—Prussia possesses 540 coal mines, giving employment to 25,000 workmen. The produce, in 1844, amounted to 53,000,000 cwts., or a value of 4,500,000 dollars, (£675,000.) In 1841, Prussia imported 3,864,944 cwts., principally from England. Her exportation was 6,903,473 to Holland, France, and Poland.

BAVARIA.—In Bavaria, the produce is not what it might be; there are 40 extensive coal mines, principally in her Rhenish provinces—the produce is about 1,200,000 cwts.

SAXONY.—In Saxony the mines are worked with zeal—the produce amounts to about 4,000,000 cwts.

There are extensive mines near the forest of Thuringen.

The Grand Duchy of Baden possesses some valuable coal mines.

In the Duchy of Brunswick there is scarcely a mine.

HANOVER.—In the kingdom of Hanover there are coal mines which occupy more than 1,000 workmen.

Wurtemberg is poor in this respect. The Grand Duchy of Hesse, the Duchy of Nassau, the Grand Duchies of Mecklenbourg and Olenbourg do not possess coal mines. In the electorate of Hesse there are some valuable mines, producing annually about 900,000 cwts.

Generally speaking, the production of coal in Europe is susceptible of being greatly developed, especially in some parts of the Austrian dominions. It is true, that during the last few years, much has been done, but there is still much more to do.

The produce of coal in Europe amounts annually, on a rough calculation, to 120,000,000 florins, or £12,000,000 sterling.

THE LEAD TRADE OF THE WEST, IN 1845.

By a recent number of the St. Louis Price Current, we derive some important information respecting the mining of lead in the West. It appears that the production of this article is increasing; the shipments from the Galena mines, alone, during the past year, amounting to 778,461 pigs—being an increase of 156,560 pigs over the previous year. The production of the lower mines has been in an equal ratio, the total produce being estimated at 150,000 pigs. The actual demand has, moreover, kept pace with the increased production; and the stock on hand at the close of the year was only 34,500 pigs, which has nearly all changed hands, and was shipped on the opening of navigation. During the past year, it opened at \$3 15 a \$3 20, and closed at \$4 00 a \$4 12½ per cwt. In the latter part of May the market became depressed, and rates receded to \$2 95 a \$2 98, but soon recovered; and, with occasional slight checks, continued to obtain an upward tendency until they reached present rates—say \$4 00 a \$4 12½ per cwt., with but a few pigs on sale. The total receipts from the Galena mines, for five years, are as follows:—

1841,.....pigs	463,404	1844,.....pigs	621,900
1842,.....	473,599	1845,.....	757,906
1843,.....	584,431		

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

SHIPPING OF CHARLESTON, S. C.

It will be seen by reference to former numbers of the *Merchants' Magazine*, that we have published a complete list of the shipping owned in the ports of New York, Boston, and Philadelphia. In the last named cities, the accounts were made out at our request, through the kindness and under the direction of the collectors of customs for those ports; and in the port of New York by a clerk in the custom-house.

It was our intention to procure similar statements of the shipping of all our maritime ports; but a variety of circumstances, which it is not necessary to mention in this place, have prevented, for the present, the fulfilment of this design. It will, however, be prosecuted in the progress of our journal.

It will not, perhaps, be considered out of place here, to remark that we have no local or sectional views to promote; and that our design is, as it ever has been, to render the *Merchants' Magazine* national in its objects and its aims; and to diffuse, as far as practicable, a knowledge of the commerce and resources of every region of country comprised in the confederacy of the United States of North America; and as commerce legitimately possesses a universality as wide as the world, we shall continue to gather from every considerable nation abroad, whatever is calculated to promote the views and extend the information of merchants, and, indeed, all professions studying the current history of the times.

This train of remark has been suggested by an article in the "Charleston (S. C.) News," on the means of increasing the commercial prosperity of that city, which we here annex, in connection with a list of vessels owned in, and sailing from Charleston, in 1836, '37, and '38, as compared with 1845 and '46.

"As it is our purpose to show that the certain means of increasing the prosperity of Charleston is the possession of shipping, connected with the foreign import trade, so we cannot illustrate the subject better than by presenting a comparative view of the vessels owned and sailing from this port, with the duties on importations of 1836, '37, and '38. This will prove that our capacity for this purpose wants only development and a field for action. We would premise that packet ships, sailing at regular periods from this port and ports in Europe, will attract the foreign trade, while the irregularity which has characterized the period of departure of those vessels which had been employed in the direct intercourse between Charleston and European ports, has presented an insuperable impediment to the continuance and stability of this intercourse. Let our importing merchants be assured of receiving their goods at nearly regular periods, and Charleston will gain many advantages as a port of importation. No one presumes to contend that our city can ever present so advantageous a market in which to make purchases of assorted stocks as New York, but between the entire engrossment of the importing business and its total absence there is a wide interval. There are many descriptions of merchandise that the country dealer would prefer to receive direct, through well known responsible houses in Charleston, than through auctions and jobbers in New York. This has been verified in numerous cases. Let us then endeavor, by giving an impulse to this enterprise, to attempt that which is certainly practicable.

VESSELS OWNED IN AND SAILING FROM CHARLESTON, IN 1836.

Ships—Martha, Harriet and Jessie, Belvidere, Thos. Bennett, Victoria, Florian.—6.
Brigs—Alpha, Washington Barge, Catharine, Elm, John C. Calhoun, Hunter, Arabian.—7.
Schooners—Sarah Ann, Lovely Keziah, Hope, Waccamaw, Jas. Hamilton.—5.

VESSELS OWNED IN AND SAILING FROM CHARLESTON, IN 1837.

Ships—Medora, Manchester, Victoria, Ocean, Harriet and Jessie, Benj. Morgan, Belvidere, Florian.—9. *Brigs*—Globe, Alpha, Catharine, Elm, Hunter, Charleston, Pegasus, Howell, J. C. Calhoun.—9. *Schooners*—R. Habersham, Lovely Keziah, Walter E. Hyer, Abigail, Columbia, Financier.—6.

VESSELS OWNED IN AND SAILING FROM CHARLESTON, IN 1838.

Ships—Harriet and Jessie, Medora, Thomas Bennett, Benj. Morgan, Liverpool, Victoria, Chicora, Oseola, Belvidere, Commerce, Florian, Helen, Manchester, Congaree.—14. *Brigs*—J. C. Calhoun, Catharine, Hunter, Elm, Homer, Alpha, Howell, Washington Barge, Lancet, Globe, Charleston, Daniel Webster, Arabian, Delaware, Chili, Armadillo.—16. *Schooners*—Financier, Abigail, Jim Crow, South Carolina, Maria.—5.

The number of vessels owned in and sailing from Charleston, from July 1, 1845, to July 1, 1846, was as follows. The contrast here is striking.

Ships—Harriet and Jessie, James Calder, Thos. Bennett, Gen. Parkhill, Warsaw, Belvidere.—6. *Brigs*—Adela, Magnolia, Arabian, Tower.—4. *Schooners*—Esquimaux, F. A. Brown, John Hancock, Stranger, Zephyr, T. C. Mitchell, Merchant, Isabella.—8.

The duties on direct importations into Charleston, during the year 1836, amounted to.....	\$696,518
In 1837.....	475,758
In 1838.....	591,474
From July 1, 1845, to July 1, 1846, they amounted to only.....	228,227

"This shows the intimate connection of the direct foreign trade with the number of vessels owned in Charleston. As the former increased, so did the latter; as the one decreased, so did the other.

"Now, in relation to the means of obtaining a sufficient aggregate of capital, let us suppose from 20 to 25 ships to cost \$500,000, what is to preclude separate subscriptions to a stock, to be raised on shares for the purpose? If Charleston, with no difficulty, has formed by associated capital, a fund of nearly \$100,000 to build a steamship, would there be any insuperable difficulty in increasing the aggregate five or six fold? We imagine not. This is a favorite mode of forming a fund for the construction and equipment of vessels, large and small, in the Eastern cities. What is practicable in that quarter of the Union is attainable in this. The advantage of this plan for the ownership of vessels is, that it diffuses through several classes of the community, the interests which become concentrated in one or a few hands, under a more limited proprietorship. This view of the subject admits of being extended, which will be attempted in a future article."

VIRGINIA INSPECTIONS AND EXPORTS OF TOBACCO.

We publish below a circular from Charles F. Osborne, Esq., enclosing a tabular statement of the tobacco exports and inspections of Virginia, and of the foreign markets to which it was shipped.

Richmond, October 8th, 1846.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE AND COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

The following table exhibits the comparative receipts, exports and stocks of Virginia tobacco, for the past ten years. In the present, as in our former tables, we take no note of shipments coastwise, it being impracticable to obtain these with accuracy.

We estimate the number of hhds. of stemmed tobacco shipped this year at 5,500 hhds., the whole of which were made from tobacco the growth of Virginia, excepting, perhaps, about 50 hhds., made from Western tobacco. No Western tobacco in the leaf has been exported from hence the past season.

Of the stock on hand, about 2,500 hhds. are now in progress of shipment to France, on account of the contractors with that government; the remaining 17,560 hhds., is mainly composed of low and inferior leaf of the crops of 1841, 1842 and 1843, and held by speculators. The planters hold scarcely any, and the manufacturers are believed to be bare of stock. We quote lugs \$1 to \$1 75; common leaf, \$2 50 to \$4; middling do., \$4 50 to \$5 50; good, \$6 to \$7 per 100 lbs., with a fair demand. There is no fine tobacco on the market.

The crop now matured and maturing, is represented to be large, although injury has been sustained by it, from the want of care in its cultivation and management, in consequence of the unparalleled sickness which has for some months past prevailed throughout the country; nevertheless, we think the crop will be of good quality, and more than an average in quantity. It is, however, probable that the receipts at the inspections will not expose the quantity made; for at present prices, the lugs and low leaf cannot be brought to market—the price which these command not paying, in many situations, the cost of transportation.

The opinion here advanced respecting the crop of tobacco in Virginia, applies with more accuracy, and in all respects, to the crop of the Western States of this Union.

The total receipt at New Orleans for the year, is 72,896 hhds., of which 15,000 hhds. were stemmed tobacco, and our anticipations are, that a like quantity may be expected the year to come.

Very respectfully,

CHARLES F. OSBORNE.

A STATEMENT,

Showing the quantity of Tobacco inspected in Virginia, from 1836 to 1846; the quantity exported, and the foreign markets to which it was shipped; the stock left on hand on 1st October of each year; likewise, the quantity of stems shipped during the same period, and the foreign markets to which they were shipped.

A. D.	England, Scotland, and Ireland.		Cowes, and a market.		F'ce.		Bremen.		Holland.		Antw'p.		Italy, Spain, & sundr's.		Tot. ship'd.		Insp'd Stock.	
	Tobacco.	Flour.	Tobacco.	Stems.	Tobacco.	Tobacco.	Stems.	Tobacco.	Stems.	Tobacco.	Stems.	Tobacco.	Stems.	Tobacco.	Stems.	Tobacco.	Tobacco.	
1836...	15,243		3,397	710	5,166	800	1,636	977	840	1,455		2,084		29,722	3,186	45,445	14,024	
1837...	9,555		2,026	378	2,387	1,221	1,970	2,542	1,924	536	60	724		18,991	4,332	36,201	10,475	
1838...	12,321		1,170		4,743	616	1,908	319	128	925		734		20,828	2,036	44,845	12,397	
1839...	13,350		2,463	738	1,115	236	2,317	1,236	919	329	57			18,729	4,031	28,502	4,896	
1840...	12,228		1,064		5,268	1,158	876	3,828	1,177	2,028	136	1,621		27,195	2,189	58,186	13,329	
1841...	16,563	2,029	2,785		7,395	1,504	3,843	2,497	2,013	2,026	218	1,672		34,442	6,074	56,141	8,719	
1842...	10,655	4,005	2,818	556	3,747	4,573	2,294	7,637	395	1,820		1,515		32,765	3,245	52,156	11,100	
1843...	11,424	3,406	5,400		4,098	3,013	1,543	6,975	321	4,814		512	136	36,236	2,000	56,788	13,420	
1844...	6,961	10,254	1,075		605	5,168	1,935	3,810	689	1,817		1,061	63	20,494	2,687	45,886	14,363	
1845...	6,525				4,542	1,422	2,622	1,842	560	1,019		2,354		17,704	3,182	51,113	24,050	
1846...	11,045	35,130	750		1,623	1,055	2,458	2,092	222	1,698		2,782		21,045	2,680	42,679	19,060	

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS AT CINCINNATI, IN 1845-46.

The following statement of the imports and exports of leading articles at Cincinnati, for the years ending August 31, 1846 and 1845, is derived from the Cincinnati Price Current:—

IMPORTS.

	1845-46.	1844-45.		1845-46.	1844-45.
Flour.....bbls.	213,111	146,695	Flaxseed.....bbls.	23,078	24,898
Cheese.....casks	645	2,968	Wheat.....bushels	419,070	445,033
Cheese.....boxes	107,426	77,236	Whiskey.....bbls.	185,274	183,730
Lead.....pigs	33,358	22,331	Salt.....	128,327	106,878
Molasses.....bbls.	45,789	21,773	Butter.....	3,087	1,549
Coffee.....sacks	61,480	52,204	Butter.....kegs	7,646	4,913
Cotton.....bales	6,730	6,240	Pig Metal.....tons	11,559	8,493
Sugar.....hhds.	16,779	14,046			

EXPORTS.

	1845-46.	1844-45.		1845-46.	1844-45.
Cheese.....casks	450	641	Bacon.....hhds.	19,247	12,980
Cheese.....boxes	43,525	43,627	Bacon.....tierces	2,777	3,576
Flour.....bbls.	206,082	154,147	Pork.....bbls.	127,009	102,310
Lard.....	29,317	24,103	Whiskey.....	107,204	106,392
Lard.....kegs	143,375	171,698			

The Price Current says, that the foregoing list of imports does not include anything that was not brought to this market by river, canal, or railroad; and the exports only include the shipments to southern ports. The shipments to the eastern markets, by way of the Miami Canal, as well as by Pittsburgh, have been much larger than in any previous year. In addition to this, both flats and steamboats have frequently left for New

Orleans without rendering an account of their cargo, so that the figures under the head of "Exports" fall far short of exhibiting the amount of produce that has been shipped from this port. As our tables now include all the shipments by every conveyance that it is possible to obtain, we shall hereafter be able to approximate nearer the true amount.

EXPORTS FROM BOSTON OF COTTON GOODS,

FOR THE YEAR ENDING MAY 31st, 1846.

The Boston Shipping List gives a tabular statement of the quantity of cotton goods exported from that port during the year ending May 31st, 1846. The footing stands 62,676 bales and cases coastwise, and 28,316 do. to foreign ports; being an increase of 22,419 bales and cases coastwise, and 2,302 do. to foreign ports. Total exports, foreign and coastwise, this year, 92,992 bales and cases, against 65,971 last year.

The places to which the largest amounts were shipped are the following:—

To New York, bales and cases,	22,547	Hong Kong,.....	650
Philadelphia,.....	19,669	Canton and Manilla,.....	535
Valparaiso,.....	11,080	Calcutta,.....	657
Baltimore,.....	8,254	Manilla,.....	1,239
New Orleans,.....	5,554	Java and Sumatra,.....	327
East Indies,.....	5,090	Smyrna,.....	656
Charleston,.....	4,530	Istapa, Central America,.....	1,138
Rio Janeiro,.....	2,189	Sandwich Islands,.....	759
Canton,.....	1,663	Richmond,.....	904

The remainder was exported, in smaller quantities, to many different places; among them are Cronstadt, Gibraltar, Coast of Africa, Madagascar, Malta, South America, Pernambuco, Honduras, California, Cuba, Laguna, St. Domingo, St. Thomas, St. Peters, Go-naives, Cape Haytien, New Zealand, Cape de Verds, West Indies, Maracaibo, Porto Cabello, Guayama, Aux Cayes, &c., &c.

PRICES OF GENESEE FLOUR IN NEW YORK:

FOR THE LAST TWENTY-FOUR YEARS.

The Buffalo Express furnishes the following table of the prices of Genesee flour in the city of New York, for the last twenty-four years, on the first Wednesday in the months of September and December in each year:—

Year.	September.	December.	Year.	September.	December.
1823,.....	\$6 50	\$6 62½	1835,.....	\$3 75	\$7 50
1824,.....	5 25	5 87½	1836,.....	7 75	10 00
1825,.....	5 12½	5 12½	1837,.....	9 62½	9 00
1826,.....	4 62½	5 12½	1838,.....	7 62½	8 62½
1827,.....	4 69	5 62½	1839,.....	6 75	6 25
1828,.....	5 75	7 87½	1840,.....	5 00	4 62
1829,.....	5 50	5 37½	1841,.....	6 50	6 37½
1830,.....	5 62	5 18	1842,.....	4 04	3 87½
1831,.....	5 25	6 00	1843,.....	4 81	4 62
1832,.....	5 87½	6 37½	1844,.....		
1833,.....	5 75	5 62½	1845,.....	4 75	6 87½
1834,.....	5 25	4 87½	1846,.....	4 18½	

The table showing that in six years, in September, prices have been lower than at present; and in eighteen years, have been higher. In the December column, the prices are in each year higher than there is any reason to believe will be the range in 1846. These two periods have been taken for the purpose of showing the state of the market under the effects of a full supply from the West, and at a time when the market is controlled by a demand dependent upon a given supply, without the effect of additions or arrivals.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

TOBACCO SMUGGLING IN ENGLAND.

THAT pure, liberal-minded, and enlightened statesman, and political economist, Dr. Bowring, in the British House of Commons, recently called the attention of government to the crimes and other evils originating in the high duties levied by the government of England on tobacco. The following is an extract from his speech on that occasion:—

“The evidence which the committee reported to the House showed that the seizures for smuggling tobacco in May, 1846, were 538; while for spirits there were only 171; tea 11; silk 10; and 26 for all other articles. It appears, also, from that evidence, that the offence was greatly increasing. While the number of convictions for the year ending January, 1843, was 436, in 1846 they had increased to 872, being an augmentation, in the space of only four years, of upwards of 200 per cent, while the increase of convictions in Scotland was 451 per cent, and in Ireland it was 252 per cent, and the people would continue to be farther demoralized so long as the high duties were maintained. The persons so convicted very rarely paid any penalties; they suffered imprisonment, and the committee had ascertained that the average period of their incarceration was three months, or ninety days, and the expense of maintaining them averaged from 4d. to 6d. per day, exclusive of the cost of prosecution or other charges which preceded their being conveyed to jail. The offence was spreading very rapidly among our sailors, the evidence proving that two-thirds of all the sailors engaged in our ships were systematically engaged in breaking the law; it was proved that whole cargoes were landed in the Thames, and openly carted through the streets in the very heart of the city, and in the open day. It was proved before the committee that one large poulterer imported largely from abroad in crates made from twisted tobacco leaves, (a laugh) which were passed by the custom-house officers, and they frequently assisted in sending them to their destination. Schools were opened in large numbers where the art of smuggling was regularly taught to youths, a system of education which was the prolific cause of great crimes. Those high duties also entailed a very considerable expense upon the public revenue. The coast guard amounted to 6,000 men, and 66 cruisers were employed at a cost to the country of between 600,000*l.* and 700,000*l.*, a great part of which might be saved if the duty upon tobacco were reduced to a reasonable scale: yet although such an enormous force was employed, it was proven to the committee that as much tobacco was smuggled into the country as passed through the custom-house and paid the duty. The honorable member proceeded to argue that the injustice done to the small dealers by the present system of duties was multitudinous and cruelly oppressive, and it appeared to him that there was no way of settling the question but by a large reduction of the duties.”

BENEVOLENT CHINESE MERCHANT.

Percy, in his anecdotes, gives an instance of generosity on the part of a Chinese merchant, of the name of Shai-king-qua, who had long known a Mr. Anderson, an English trader, and had large transactions with him. It appears that Mr. Anderson met with heavy losses, became insolvent, and at the time of his failure owed his Chinese friend upwards of eighty thousand dollars. Mr. Anderson wished to come to England, in the hopes of being able to retrieve his affairs; he called on the Hong merchant, and in the utmost distress, explained his situation, his wishes, and his hopes. The Chinese listened with anxious attention, and having heard his story, thus addressed him: “My friend Anderson, you have been very unfortunate; you lose all; I very sorry; you go to England; if you more fortunate there, you come back and pay; but that you no forget Chinaman friend, you take this, and when you look on this, you will remember Shai-king-qua.” In saying these words, he pulled out a valuable gold watch, and gave it to Anderson.

Mr. Anderson took leave of his friend, but he did not live to retrieve his affairs, or to return to China. When the account of his death, and of the distress in which he had left his family, reached Canton, the Hong merchant called on one of the gentlemen of the

factory who was about to return to Europe, and addressed him in the following manner: "Poor Mr. Anderson dead! I very sorry; he good man; he friend, and he leave two child; they poor—they have nothing—they child of my friend; you take this for them; tell them Chinaman friend send it!" And he put into the gentleman's hand a sum of money for Mr. Anderson's children, amounting to several hundred pounds.

ANECDOTE OF AN EDINBURGH MERCHANT.

It is stated in a foreign paper, that a merchant, in prosecuting his morning tour in the suburbs of Edinburgh, found, as he walked along, a purse containing a considerable sum of money. He observed a lady at a considerable distance, who, he thought, would be the owner and loser. Determined to be correct in the party to whom he delivered it, he fell upon a strange, yet ingenious plan to effect this. He resolved to act the part of a "poor distressed tradesman," and boldly went forward, hat in hand, and asked alms. This was answered with a polite "Go away! I have nothing to give you." The *poor* man, however, persisted in his entreaties until he had got assistance for his "famishing wife and children," the lady, from reasons, no doubt, similar to Mrs. Maclarty's, at last condescended; but, to her dismay, found that the wherewith was gone. The merchant, now satisfied that he was correct, with a polite bow returned the purse, with an advice that in future she would be more generous to the distressed and destitute.

LONDON COMMERCIAL AGENCY.

We would direct the special attention of business men to the extensive foreign agency establishment of Messrs. Simmonds & Ward, of London, who occupy the same position in that great mercantile city, as our Harnden, Pomeroy, &c. For very many years, they have now devoted their attention to the improvement of the business arrangements with foreign countries. They have agents in every leading town and British colony, and whether the matter to be transacted be the transmission of funds, the sale or purchase of merchandise, the appointment of agents, the consignment of goods, the publication of new works, or the procuring of English goods, all comes within the scope of their extensive agency; and we can speak from experience of the promptitude and high standing of their house, with which we have long been in correspondence.

CHINA OPIUM TRADE.

The Rev. Mr. Pohlman gives the following summary statement of this inhuman traffic:—

"In the city of Amoy alone, there are as many as one thousand opium shops, where the drug can be purchased; and facilities are afforded for reclining to smoke it. To give an idea of the drain of specie from the country, on account of opium, it need only be mentioned that the annual sale of opium at the port of Amoy alone, averages one million two hundred thousand dollars; and that there are, along the coast of this single province, four other smuggling depots. The total annual drain on the finances of the country is estimated at twelve millions of dollars."

MANUFACTURES OF DUTCHESS COUNTY.

ERRATA.—The reader of the article on the "Manufacturing Industry of the State of New York," in the October number of this Magazine, is requested to substitute the following sentence, for the 12th, 13th, and 14th lines from the top of page 371: "The first factory in 1814, was erected by Peter A. Schenck, Abraham H. Schenck, and H. & S. Cowing, the latter of whom eventually assigned their interest to their associates." The value of the wool consumed at the Glenham factory, stated on page 374 at \$70,000, was \$73,000, and the quantity consumed is erroneously stated, on page 375, at 173,000 pounds; it should be 190,000, as correctly stated on the previous page. It is usual to charge all errors to the printer; these, however, were committed by the writer, as we have ascertained by reference to his manuscript.

THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*Essay on the Progress of Nations in Productive Industry, Civilization, Population, and Wealth, illustrated by Statistics of Mining, Agriculture, Manufactures, Commerce, Banking, Revenues, Internal Improvements, Emigration, Mortality, and Population.* By EZRA C. SEAMAN. Detroit: M. Geiger & Co. New York: Baker & Scribner.

We have here a volume of nearly five hundred pages, written, as we are informed by the author, at intervals, during the last fifteen years, when he was not occupied with professional business, and without any definite object in view. It covers a wide range of subjects, and embodies a large amount of statistics, which are brought down to the present time, and introduced with a view of illustrating the author's speculations. The volume is divided into seventeen chapters. The two first are devoted to a consideration of the "Laws of Nature;" four more to Civilization, in its history and progress; which are followed by several chapters on metals, paper money, foreign commerce, manufactures, population—in short, to all the principal departments and products of human industry. The author has, in the course of his inquiries, discussed the influence of the laws of nature, of education, of climate, and of government, civil, military, and ecclesiastical, upon the human mind, and upon the destiny and progress of man. His object has been to connect political economy with statistics; to bring the rules and principles of the former to the text and established facts of the latter; and to try them, as far as practicable, by the severe test and certain standard of the principles of mathematics. The volume contains much information on the subjects discussed; and, although we should be far from assenting to all the conclusions and deductions of the author, we can find much that is suggestive and useful; and, whatever may be the opinion entertained of the soundness of the views which he has presented in the work, no one will refuse to credit the author for the pains-taking research and industry evinced in its production.

- 2.—*The Water-Cure in Chronic Disease. An Exposition of the Cause, Progress, and Terminations of Various Chronic Diseases of the Digestive Organs, Lungs, Nerves, Limbs, and Skin, and of their Treatment by Water, and other Hygienic Means.* By JAMES MANLEY GULLY, M. D., Licentiate of the Royal College of Surgeons, and Fellow of the Royal Physical Society, Edinburgh; Fellow of the Royal Medical and Chirurgical Society, London, etc. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

This work is divided into three parts. In the first, the origin, progress, and terminations of chronic diseases in general, are delineated and explained, and the deduction made, that no disease becomes chronic, unless the central organs of nutrition are affected. In the second part, this is further developed in the history of individual chronic diseases, the explanation of the pathology of each of which is given, and also the reasons for the water treatment applicable to each. Part third treats of the mode in which the water-cure operates in producing its beneficial results; and in bringing forward the details of the water-cure, the rationale of each process is given, and the circumstances which regulate their application stated. The statements are drawn from the experience of the author, in an extensive field of practical observation, during four years' residence at Malvern. The whole work bears the impress of a highly cultivated mind; and all the statements appear to be made with a frankness and candor well calculated to elicit the credence of unbiased minds, and, indeed, all who are not dogmatically wedded to old prejudices. It is the ablest and best written work touching the "water-cure" that we have met with; and it does not appear to be written so much to catch the hopeful invalid, as to enlighten him as to the nature of his disease, or the mode in which the water plan is to relieve it.

- 3.—*The Early Jesuit Missions in North America; Compiled and Translated from the Letters of the French Jesuits, with Notes.* By Rev. WILLIAM INGRAHAM KIP, M. A., Corresponding Member of the New York Historical Society. New York: Wiley & Putnam's Library of American Books.

It is truly said, by the author of these interesting volumes, that no page of our country's history is more touching and romantic, than that which records the labors and sufferings of the Jesuit missionaries. Marquette, Joliet, Brebeuf, Jolques, Lallemand, Rosles, and Marest, are names the West should ever hold in remembrance. Most of them were martyrs to their faith—but few "died the common death of all men," or slept in church-consecrated grounds. The editor and translator has made a valuable contribution to the historic literature of the country, and the publishers have very judiciously added it to their valuable collection of American books. The narrative of facts it contains are full of romantic interest, and fully illustrate the trite but just remark, that "truth is stranger than fiction."

- 4.—*Owen Glavin's Wanderings in the Isle of Wight.* By OLD HUMPHREY, author of "Addresses," "Observations," "Thoughts for the Thoughtful," "Homely Hints," "Old Sea Captain," etc., etc. New York: Robert Carter.

The "Wanderings in the Isle of Wight" are written in the same sententious, homely, and agreeable style that characterises everything from the prolific pen of Old Humphrey. There is an individuality, and kindness of heart, running through the old man, that interests all readers, and inspires one with a desire of shaking him by the hand. Although deeply tinctured with a religious spirit, for the most part cheerful, there are few that will not read these sketches with pleasure.

- 5.—*The Rainbow, for 1847.* Edited by A. J. McDONALD. Albany: A. L. Harrison. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

The plan of this new annual is unique, happily conceived, and, on the whole, well carried out. The design for its composition was, to imagine each State of the Union to be a *garden*, from which some flowers would be culled, and the whole be formed into a bouquet. After much labor, the *flowers* have been gathered from nineteen States, and, as the contributors are so wide-spread, so different in their styles, and yet, like a bed of tulips, each possessing such peculiar beauty of color—their combined tints are called the "Rainbow." To drop the editor's metaphor, the volume consists of poems, tales, and sketches, of varied interest and merit, from "dwellers" in nineteen of the States. The articles are mostly original. Several of the engravings are pretty, and the volume is handsomely printed on a firm, snow-white paper, and bound most superbly. The few faults of the work will, doubtless, be corrected in a future volume, which we hope will be induced by the success of the present. It is, emphatically, a national work, and, on that account, as its influence must be for good, we earnestly hope that it may be successful.

- 6.—*On Heroes, Hero-Worship, and the Heroic in History. Six Lectures. Reported with Emendations and Additions.* By THOMAS CARLYLE. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

The publishers have done well to introduce this comparatively new, but well-known work, into their series of "Choice Reading." It appears, from a characteristic note of Carlyle, that he has "read over, and revised into a correct state, for Messrs. Wiley & Putnam, of New York," the present work; "who are hereby authorized, they, and they only, so far as he can authorize them, to print and vend the same in the United States." The book is "Carlyle all over."

- 7.—*The Poetical Works of Thomas Moore.* Complete in one Volume. Illustrated with Engravings from Drawings by eminent Artists. New York: D. Appleton & Co. Philadelphia: George S. Appleton.

It would be a work of supererogation on our part, were we capable, to attempt anything like a criticism on the poetical works of Moore, "that matchless compeer of song." But we may be permitted to speak of the present edition in its *material* composition, as a specimen of "book-making." We had supposed that the APPLETONS had done all that could well be done to improve the typographic art in this country, and give form and beauty to their publications, during the last four or five years; but we were mistaken, as this volume will convince any one who will take the trouble—we mean enjoy the pleasure—of examining it, as it must ever be a pleasure to persons of taste to look upon works of art which so nearly approach the highest ideal of material perfection. It is our deliberate opinion that this is the most perfect book that has ever been produced by "the trade" in the United States; and it deserves a high rank as a model for the profession. The paper is of the finest texture, and the type of the most perfect cast. The steel plate illustrations equal, if not surpass, the best that have adorned the most popular English or American annuals. The publishers seem to have spared no expense to reach a degree of excellence equal, to say the least, to that attained by the leading publishers of London. In this volume of seven hundred and fifty-seven royal octavo pages, we have the complete poetical works of Moore, embracing the English edition of ten volumes, with the ten prefaces which accompany them. No one, however fastidious, will ever think of purchasing any other for a library.

- 8.—*The Rose; or, Affection's Gift, for 1847.* Edited by EMILY MARSHALL. Illustrated with ten elegant Steel Engravings. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This unpretending little annual has made its annual appearance for a long time. The tales possess an interest independent of that which is derived from startling incidents and striking characters. The moral influence which poetry and fiction always exert when produced by real genius, will be recognized as one of the chief recommendations of the collection impressed upon the snowy white leaves of this handsomely bound volume. "The embellishments," says the editor, "have all been engraved by first-rate artists, and exhibit an unusual degree of novelty and variety in the subjects." It is, on the whole, a neat and pretty gift-book."

- 9.—*Poems.* By AMELIA. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This is the second edition of these poems, somewhat enlarged by the addition of several of the author's more recent productions. The first edition was published in one of the Western States; but the more than ordinary merit of the poems soon attracted the notice of the discriminating everywhere, and secured at once for the Western poetess a place among the "poets and poetry of America." Many of the pieces are really beautiful, and all evince that purity of thought, mingled with a depth and delicacy of feeling, which are the general accompaniments of true poetical inspiration. The publishers have lent the volume, what it so well deserves, the aid of a handsome material dress, in every particular.

- 10.—*Sacred Meditations.* By P. L. U. Boston: Waite, Pierce & Co.

- 11.—*Lovest Thou Me? or, The Believer's Companion in his Hours of Self-Examination.* By the Rev. DANIEL WISE. Boston: Waite, Pierce & Co.

Two pretty volumes, of a religious and devotional character, and designed as tokens of remembrance between pious friends.

- 12.—*Two Lives, or To Seem and To Be.* By MARIA J. McINTOSH, author of "Conquest and Self Conquest," "Praise and Principle," "Woman an Enigma," &c. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

We should have no hesitation in employing the strongest language of commendation in regard to this book. It is a good one in every sense of the word. The interest of the narrative is sustained throughout, and it is written in an elegant and graceful style,—but after all, its chief excellence consists in its moral and social teachings, which will call forth a response from the "holy place" in every human heart. The writer of such a book requires no copy-right law to protect her from foreign authorship.

- 13.—*Lectures on Anatomy and Physiology, with an Appendix on Water-Cure.* By MARY S. GORE. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The lectures of Mrs. Gore, delivered from time to time, have been listened to with interest, and not, we presume, without profit, to her countrywomen. They are, she states, the fruits of earnest study and inquiry, pursued through many difficulties. She commenced the study of water-cure in cases of female weakness in 1832, and, ten years later, its use in fevers, and continued her efforts till she obtained a knowledge of the practice of Priessnitz. Since then, she has practised water-cure with remarkable success. She is desirous, and pledges herself to do all in her power to educate women to prevent and cure disease. She says—"Several brave and true women have already determined to qualify themselves for water-cure physicians, and the writer has reason to hope that she shall live to see at least one woman practising water-cure in each city in the Union." Although we are not converts, or wedded to any "universal panacea," we hope she may live to see many; for we believe that one kind and intelligent woman in sickness, is worth a dozen M. D.'s; and that water, in its various applications to the system, both as a preventative and a cure, is far more efficacious than the pernicious system of drugging, which, thank Heaven, is rapidly giving place to a larger experience, and the more liberal views of the Eclectic. We sincerely commend these lectures to the attention of women; as we feel quite sure that a careful study of them will be attended with the most important benefits to the race.

- 14.—*Alttorian; or, Incidents of Life and Adventure in the Rocky Mountains.* By an Amateur. Edited by JAMES WATSON WEBB. 2 vols., 12mo. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The reading public are indebted to Colonel Webb, of the Courier and Enquirer, for these highly interesting sketches of Indian habits, incidents of the chase, and descriptions of the regions where the scene of the narrative is laid. In the introductory "Dedication," from the pen of the editor, we are informed that they were written by a British officer, who visited the United States in 1832, between whom and Colonel W. a similarity of tastes and pursuits produced an intimacy, that gradually ripened into an enduring friendship. The dedicatory remarks of Colonel Webb are interesting, and should not be passed over; and the work "will be found, on perusal, one of the very few which exhibits the native of our forests as he was, and still is, where he roams uncontaminated by his intercourse with civilized man, in the boundless regions of the northwest."

- 15.—*An Inductive and Practical System of Double Entry Book-Keeping, on an Entirely New Plan; having a General Rule, deduced from the Definition of Debtor and Creditor, applied to the Journalizing of all Transactions: containing Twelve Sets of Books for imparting a General Knowledge of the Science, with Numerous and Varied Entries, and Illustrating Single and Partnership Business, both Prosperous and Adverse; also, Approved Forms of Auxiliary Books; a Set of Steamboat Books; a Vocabulary of Commercial Terms; Practical Forms for Keeping Books in Different Branches of Business; Commercial Calculations; a Table of Foreign Coins and Moneys, of Accounts, etc. Designed for the Use of Private Students, Schools, and Practical Accountants.* By A. F. & S. W. CRITTENDEN, Accountants. Philadelphia: E. C. & J. Biddle.

The contents and design of this work are fully explained in the title-page, quoted above; which leaves us nothing further to say on that head. There have been many excellent books of this class published during the last five or six years; and it is, perhaps, fair to presume that the last is the best. The execution of the present work is highly creditable to all concerned; and, as far as we can judge, it seems to be well adapted to the purposes of imparting a thorough knowledge of the principles and practice of book-keeping, in all its varieties. The commercial tables, in the latter part of the volume, will add to its value as a reference-book for the counting-house.

- 16.—*Prince's Manual of Roses, comprising the most Complete History of the Rose, including every class, and all the most admirable varieties that have appeared in Europe and America; together with ample information on their Culture and Propagation.* By WILLIAM ROBERT PRINCE, Proprietor of the Linnæan Botanic Garden and Nurseries at Flushing, and author of the Treatises on Horticulture, on Fruits, and on the Vine. New York: Clark & Austin.

The author of this book has enjoyed rare advantages of acquiring a thorough knowledge of the subjects discussed in this treatise. William Prince, the grandfather of the author, we are told, was the first American amateur who formed an extensive collection of roses by making importations; and his son, the father of the present Mr. Prince, continued to enlarge the collection annually, with the finest varieties obtainable from foreign climes; and formed, in connection with the author, a most perfect collection of our native species and varieties. Almost every variety of the rose is described, and all the necessary information for their culture and propagation is imparted in a clear and comprehensive manner.

17.—*An Examination of the Testimony of the Four Evangelists by the Rules of Evidence administered in Courts of Justice. With an Account of the Trial of Jesus.* By SIMON GREENLEAF, LL. D., Royal Professor of Law in Harvard University. Boston: C. C. Little and James Brown.

The well-known and high reputation of the author of this volume, as an acute, profound, and learned jurist, will insure for it a careful and respectful study. It has been prepared with the design of applying those severe tests of legal evidence which are used in courts of law, in order to establish the truth of the narratives of the four Evangelists; and it is, perhaps, unnecessary to state that he has executed the task with decided ability and success. The importance of the subject will scarcely be denied, and it is appropriately dedicated to the members of the legal profession. The North American Review for October, 1846, has an article of some twenty or thirty pages, based on Greenleaf's work, in connection with Strauss's "Life of Jesus," which the writer opens with a very just comparison of these eminent scholars. Of the former, the Review says—"It is the production of an able and profound lawyer—a man who has grown grey in the halls of justice and the schools of jurisprudence—a writer of the highest authority on legal subjects, whose life has been spent in weighing testimony and sifting evidence, and whose published opinions on the rules of evidence are received as authoritative in all the English and American tribunals—for fourteen years the highly-respected colleague of the late Mr. Justice Story, and now the honored head of the most distinguished and prosperous school of English law in the world."

18.—*The Opal; a Pure Gift for the Holidays, for 1847.* Edited by JOHN KEESE. With illustrations by J. G. Chapman. New York: J. C. Riker.

This is the third year of the publication of this beautiful annual. The original plan of a work combining the highest order of excellence with the purest thoughts and sentiments, has been faithfully adhered to by the editor and publisher. And each new issue has afforded evidence of improvement, where there was room for it. The success which has marked the progress of this work, confirms the remark of a recent English critic, that a great change has occurred in the spirit of *belles lettres* writing of late years; and that to be popular, it must be adorned with moral grace, or dignified with just sentiments. The illustrations, nine in number, though of varied merit, are all creditable to the skill of the artist, who is scarcely excelled in his line. "Nature's Pet," on the illustrated title, is charmingly executed, in the countenances of the figures. "The Wasted Fountains," graphically delineates the emotions of the soul, under the circumstances, and happily portrayed in the spiritual and poetical letter-press illustration of Miss Ann C. Lynch. "The Summer Stream" and "The Sentinel" are capital. "The Widow," which is rather stiff, is accompanied by a poem on "Worship," however, that makes us forget any defect in the picture. It breathes, in the manly verse of Whittier, the great thoughts of a "pure and undefiled religion." We regret that we have not space to speak more at length of the different articles in prose and verse, none of which are below mediocrity, and many of them are equal to the best efforts of the best writers. Among the list of contributors, we may name Mrs. E. Oakes Smith, Ann C. Lynch, Mrs. L. H. Sigourney, Mrs. Sarah J. Hale, Mrs. Francis S. Osgood, and Longfellow, Tuckerman, Pierpont, Whittier, C. Edwards Lester, Rev. James Shroeder, Sprague, Olin, and Stone, all well-known and favorite authors, besides others of undoubted merit, whose articles have previously given so much satisfaction,—and we have no hesitation in adopting the remark of the editor, "that they are equal, in point of literary excellence, to the best efforts of foreign writers in a similar vein, and in many instances exhibiting a rare ingenuity of style and conception." On the whole, we consider it the Gift-Book of the season.

19.—*The Memorabilia of Swedenborg; or, the Spiritual World Laid Open.* New York: John Allen.

It is well known, we believe, that Prof. Bush, an able theologian and learned scholar, has become a convert to the doctrines of the "New Church," and a believer in the alleged revelations of Emanuel Swedenborg. Dr. Wood admits, what few have ever denied, that Swedenborg was an honest man; and however much we may consider him mistaken, all who have the least knowledge of Dr. Bush, will not for a moment entertain a doubt as to the entire sincerity and honesty of his purpose in advocating the claims of this remarkable man. The "Memorabilia" consists of selections from the writings of Swedenborg, with notes and annotations by his learned disciple. These writings are published in numbers, under the general title of "the Swedenborg Library." We have read several of the numbers, and we confess that we have been deeply interested in them, and we have no doubt that many who are not prepared to embrace his system, will find much that accords with their highest intuitions.

20.—*Thoughts. Selected from the Writings of the Rev. William Ellery Channing.* Boston: William Crosby & H. P. Nichols.

The writings of the late Dr. Channing are full of the aphoristic style of expression, in which he both delighted and excelled. One of Dr. Channing's thoughts, which the compiler has selected as the motto, is happily illustrated in these "apples of gold in pictures of silver."—"Sometimes a single word, spoken by the voice of genius, goes far into the heart. A hint, a suggestion, an undefined delicacy of expression, teaches more than we gather from volumes of less-gifted men." Every one has experienced the truth of this remark; and no one can read these detached thoughts without acquiring purer aspirations and higher hopes; and we earnestly trust it may "introduce some to an acquaintance with this great benefactor to our minds, who, through sectarian fears, might be repelled from the larger work."

- 21.—*The Mayflower, for 1847.* Edited by Mrs. E. OAKES SMITH, author of "Riches Without Wings," "Sinless Child," "Western Captive," "True Child," etc., etc. Boston: Saxton & Kelt.

This beautiful annual, edited by E. O. Smith, is one of the most interesting souvenirs we have seen. It is neatly executed, and illustrated by Sartain in his best manner. The literary contents, in point of variety and interest, far surpass the average contributions to works of the kind. The articles by Mrs. Oakes Smith are distinguished by a rare union of metaphysical insight and poetic beauty. Mr. Helfenstein has also done himself more than usual credit in the *Mayflower*. "Knickerbocker vs. Pilgrim," by C. F. Hoffman, is in the author's happiest vein, and charmingly unfolds many truths whose significance partial historians will do well to ponder. The poems are generally of a high order. Miss Sedgwick's sweet moralizing, and Mr. M'Cracken's rare wit, agreeably diversify the work; and we commend it to our readers as a truly valuable as well as tasteful gift-book.

- 22.—*Lives of Eminent English Judges of the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries.* Edited by W. N. WELSHY, Esq., M. A., Recorder of Chester. Philadelphia: T. & J. W. Johnson.

The present work comprises a series of valuable biographical sketches of some of the most distinguished judges of Great Britain. The greater part of those sketches were prepared by the author, although a small portion was written by the late Edmund Plunkett Burke, afterwards Chief Justice of St. Lucia. The volume will commend itself to the attentive perusal of the members of the legal profession, as well as to all those who desire to become acquainted with those distinguished lights of jurisprudence, which have adorned the annals of the bench and bar of England. It is published in a handsome style, and will be found a valuable contribution to the legal, as well as the general library. It embraces memoirs of Sir Matthew Hale, Lord Keeper Whitelocke, Lord Nottingham, Sir John Holt, Lord Harcourt, Lord Maclesfield, Lord King, Lord Talbot, Lord Hardwicke, Sir William Blackstone, Lord Bathurst, Lord Mansfield, Lord Camden, Lord Thurlow, and Lord Ashburton.

- 23.—*History of the Conquest of Peru by the Spaniards.* By DON TELESFORO DE TRUEBA Y COSIO, author of "The Life of Hernan Cortez," etc. Philadelphia: Carey & Hart's "Library for the People," No. IV.

Although the days of bloody conquest are fast passing away before the lights of a truer civilization, and the "ancient divinities of Violence and Wrong are retreating to their kindred darkness," the histories and detail of events which have marked the onward steps of man through the wilderness of savage passions, will be read with interest, and not, perhaps, without profit, until long ages have created a new order of conquests and triumphs, and man be "born again" to a new and a more divine humanity. The "Conquest of Peru" forms a part of the history of the race; and the account given of it in this volume exhibits many of those elements of character, as courage, heroism, devotion, etc., which shall, in the future, God-directed, shine with a lustre immeasurably transcending the pigmy conceptions of the present. Five volumes of this series of books "for the people" have been published;—twenty more, in the departments of history, biography, voyages, and travels, all of an interesting and instructive character, are announced by the publishers.

- 24.—*The Scholar, the Jurist, the Artist, the Philanthropist. An Address before the Phi Beta Kappa Society of Harvard University at their Anniversary, August 27th, 1846.* By CHARLES SUMNER. Boston: William D. Ticknor & Co.

The idea of this discourse was most happily conceived, and beautifully and eloquently has it been developed by the mind of the author. Pickering, Story, Allston, Channing—men whose days were covenanted to "Knowledge, Justice, Beauty, Love, the comprehensive attributes of God"—are here represented as the "lowly and mortal ministers of lofty and immortal truth—as the Scholar, the Jurist, the Artist, the Philanthropist." Leaving the mere biographical details, Mr. Sumner portrays with great eloquence and power the varied, but harmonious mission of these men, and exhibits to our view those elements of character that constitute true sublimity. A more fitting theme for the occasion, and a mind more capable of appreciating its lofty inspirations of wisdom and goodness, could scarcely have been conceived.

- 25.—*The Wedding Gift; or, The Duties and Pleasures of Domestic Life.* Boston: Gould, Kendall & Lincoln.

This miniature volume includes two choice compilations for the conjugal pair, and the domestic retreat—one entitled "The Marriage Ring; or, How to Make Home Happy," from the writings of John Angell James, a writer esteemed for his many practical writings, and the other a collection of some of the neatest fragments of poetry and prose to be found in the language, by different authors, but all relating to the affections and pleasures of domestic life.

- 26.—*The Mourner Consoled; containing The Cypress Wreath.* By REV. RUFUS GRISWOLD. *The Mourner's Chaplet.* By JOHN KEESE. Boston: Gould, Kendall & Lincoln.

Another miniature volume, embracing a collection of consolatory pieces, in prose and verse, designed for those who mourn the loss of children and friends. The "Cypress Wreath" is made up partly of short extracts in prose, with a few poems, and the "Mourner's Chaplet" entirely of poetry. The selections are generally in good taste; and the two works combined form a very appropriate offering of sympathy for bereaved friends.

27.—*Chambers's Information for the People, a Popular Encyclopædia.* First American edition. With Numerous Additions, and more than five hundred engravings. Philadelphia: G. B. Zeiber & Co. New York: Burgess, Stringer & Co.

Three numbers of this work have already been published in this country, and it is to be completed in eighteen; making, altogether, eighteen hundred imperial octavo pages, in two volumes, of nine hundred pages each. The plan of the work is thus set forth in the publishers' advertisement:—

"The work will be edited by an accomplished American scholar, who, without impairing in the slightest degree the integrity of the original text, will add such notes, and make such corrections and additions as are necessary to adapt it to the wants of the American public. The plan on which the work is formed, is to select only the subjects on which it is important that a people, who feel the value of sound education, should be well informed. The minutiae of biography, topography, scientific technicalities, and other matters to which there may be only need for occasional reference, are dismissed; and thus, what usually fills the greater part of an Encyclopedia is at once got rid of. There only remains a series of articles on the most important branches of Science, Physical, Mathematical, and Moral; Natural History, Political History, Geography, and General Literature. All is given which, if studied, and received into the mind, would make an individual, in the common walks of life, a well-informed man—while, with a few exceptions, only that is omitted which is not needed as a part of the standing knowledge of any person, whatever, besides those for whom it may have a professional or local interest."

We shall take occasion to refer to this valuable work in a future number of our Journal.

28.—*The Analogy of Religion, Natural and Revealed, to the Constitution and Course of Nature.* To which are added, *Two Brief Dissertations on Personal Identity, and on the Nature of Virtue.* By JOSEPH BUTLER, D. C. L., Lord Bishop of Durham, and DANIEL WILSON, D. D., Bishop of Calcutta. With an Account of the Character and Writings of Bishop Butler. By SAMUEL FAIRFAX, D. D., Lord Bishop of Gloucester. New York: Robert Carter.

This great work of Bishop Butler has ever been regarded by theologians a master-piece of argument; and, to quote from the criticism of that eminent prelate, the Bishop of Calcutta, there is in his writings a vastness of idea, a reach and generalization of reasoning, a native sympathy and grandeur of thought, which command and fill the mind. He grasps firmly his topic, and insensibly communicates to his readers the calmness and conviction which he possesses himself. Patient, silent, unobtrusive investigation, was his forte; and his powers of invention were as fruitful as his judgment was sound. Probably no book in the compass of theology is so full of the seeds of things, to use the expression of a kindred genius, (Lord Bacon,) as the "Analogy."

29.—*Pithy Papers on Singular Subjects.* By OLD HUMPHREY, author of "Observations," "Walks in London," "Country Strolls," "Thoughts for the Thoughtful," etc. New York: Robert Carter.

This little volume, which contains some forty or fifty "pithy" papers from the pen of "Old Humphrey," whose several publications have been noticed in the Merchants' Magazine, as they have re-appeared in this country, fully sustains the reputation of the author as a shrewd observer of human nature and human life, in their ever-varying aspects. It is written in a homely, sententious, Franklin-like style, and strongly marked with that individuality that rivets the attention, while it wins upon the hearts, of a large class of readers.

30.—*The Discourses and Letters of Louis Cornaro, on a Sober and Temperate Life. With a Biography of the Author.* By PIERO MARONCELLI, and Notes and an Appendix, by JOHN BURDELL. New York: Fowler & Wells.

Cornaro was born in Padua in 1467, and died in 1565, in the ninety-ninth year of his age. So says the biography—a statement that gives great force to his discourses and letters on a sober and temperate life. If a man with the lights of the fifteenth century could prolong existence, in the enjoyment of good health, to near a century, what ought not man to do in this respect, with all the superadded light which science and experience have furnished in this nineteenth century?

31.—*The Count of Monte-Cristo.* By ALEXANDER DUMAS. With elegant illustrations, by M. VALENTIN. 2 volumes. New York: Burgess, Stringer & Co.

We have not read this last novel of Dumas; and, although it occupies nearly six hundred closely printed pages, it is asserted by the French reviews to have thrown "Hugo, Balzac, and Sue, in the shade." It is full of brilliant scenes, and the conception of the plot is both striking and original. So says one who has read it.

32.—*The Floral Fortune-Teller, a Game for the Season of Flowers.* By Miss S. C. EDGARTON. Boston: A. Tompkins.

Fortune-telling, in one way or another, is almost co-eval with time; and nearly everything in the heavens above, and the earth beneath, has been adopted as its oracle. The fair author of this little volume has consulted the "flora! apostles" respecting the mysteries of our earthly destiny. The simplest flower of the valley, as well as the more pretending one of the cultivated garden, are, in her mind, "clothed with the mantles of prophets," and utter "a language that is as familiar as household words." Questions are propounded, and the answering oracles are "drawn from the purest wells of English" and German poetry. Shakspeare, Wordsworth, Coleridge, Tennyson, Goethe, Southey, Campbell, Burns, and many more, are all laid under contribution, and "come at call," with their inspirations, to aid the prophetess in her efforts to reveal the character and future fortunes of those who worship at her shrine.